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OF THE

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES.

DEVOTED TO

COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS,
STATISTICS, GENERAL LITERATURE, ETC.

"Commerce is King."

EDITED BY

J. D. B. DE BOW,

PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL ECONOMY, ETC., IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

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ARTICLES IN VOLUME XIII.

JULY—DECEMBER, 1852.

Page.

I. THE ARCTIC REGIONS AND SIR JOHN FRANKLIN....... 1
II. SOUTHERN POPULATION—ITS DESTINY.............. 13
III. SIBERIA.............................. 19
IV. ISTHMUS OF TEHUANTEPEC........................ 45
V. PUBLIC LANDS OF TEXAS.............................. 53
VI. HISTORY, CONDITION AND RESOURCES OF CANADA..109
VII. FREE BANKING.............................127
VIII. MODERN GREECE.............................134, 217
IX. TENNESSEE—HER MANUFACTURES AND INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.............................157
X. OVERFLOW OF THE DELTA OF THE MISSISSIPPI......166
XI. PRODUCTION AND MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR..........176
XII. TAXATION AND REVENUES ANCIENT AND MODERN.............................230, 354
XIII. NICARAGUA AND THE INTEROCEANIC CANAL..........236
XIV. SOUTHERN SCHOOL BOOKS.............................248
XV. WOMAN AND HER NEEDS.............................267
XVI. MEXICO IN 1852.............................325
XVII. THE STATES OF EUROPE—SPAIN.......................367
XVIII. EARLY LIFE IN THE SOUTHWEST—THE BOWIES.......378
XIX. SPANISH RULE IN LOUISIANA.........................383
XX. SUGAR.............................391
XXI. ADULTERATION OF ARDENT SPIRITS....................397
XXII. HUNGARY IN 1852.............................432
XXIII. IMMIGRATION—ITS RESULTS AND FUTURE POLICY....455
XXIV. ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC.............................456
XXV. DELTA OF NORTHWEST MISSISSIPPI.......................475
XXVI. FOREIGN TRADE OF VIRGINIA AND THE SOUTH.........493
XXVII. CONSTITUENTS OF THE SUGAR-CANE JUICE..............503
XXVIII. EMPIRE OF JAPAN.............................541
XXIX. SPAIN—CONCLUDED.............................563
XXX. RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES............571
XXXI. AUSTRALIA.............................584

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS, STATISTICS, ETC. 57, 192, 291, 516, 598
COMMERCIAL " " " 74, 185, 298, 403, 507, 603
INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, " " 80, — 305, 408, 522
MANUFACTURING AND MISCELLANEOUS, " 90, 196, 309, 412, 624
BIOGRAPHICAL GALLERY.................... 97, 199, 314, 416, 636
EDITORIAL AND LITERARY....................98, 204, 318, 419, 529, 637

GENERAL INDEX TO VOLUME XIII.

Arctic Regions.......... 1
Agriculture—Persons employed in the United States.......... 15
Area of the Slave States.......... 15
Arctic Ocean.......... 36
Alabama Rail-Roads.......... 67
Arkansas " 86, 526
Artesian Wells in Alabama.......... 93
Agricultural Society of U. S..........207
Athenian Revenues..........230
Agricultural Statistics of U. S..........295
Alexandria, D. C..........310
Alabama Direct Trade..........318
Adulteration of Ardent Spirits..........397
Agricultural Congress..........426
Agricultural Papers and Schools..........518
Australia—Geography, Climate, Geology, Natural History, Colonization, Agriculture, Commerce, Improvements, Gold Mines, Products, Etc..........584

Banking—Free..........127
Book Notices..........104, 210, 320, 430, 536, 643
Bowies, the..........378
Baltimore Commercial Convention..........427
Baltimore and Ohio Road..........523
Beef Trade of N. Orleans..........608

Cotton Interests, and how the Planters may remedy the evil of low prices.......... 62
Cotton—The First Bale.......... 65
" History of the Culture.......... 65
" from Flax.......... 67
" Trade.......... 71
Coffee Trade of U. S.......... 76
Cotton Crop, its Extent.......... 69
Cuba..........103
Canada—History, Condition and Resources of..........109, 624
Commerce of Great Britain and U. States Compared..........185
Cotton Manufactures Exported from U. S..187
Coffee Trade of the World..........188
Commerce of St. Louis..........188
Cotton—Supply of..........192
Chicago..........198
Canal of Nicaragua..........236
Cotton Planters' Organization..........294
Commerce of U. S., 1820, 1851..........298
Canal and Rail-Road Transport..........408
Caius Gracchus, by Mrs. McCord..........427
Commercial Independence of the South, 477, 493
Cotton Trade, N. Orleans..........508
Canadian Commerce, &c..........516, 535
Cotton Crop, 1851-2..........516
Cotton Culture..........520, 521
" Factory, Cost of..........522
Coal Trade of Pennsylvania..........604
Coffee Trade of N. Orleans..........608
Currency, Coinage, &c., of U. S..........615
Cuba—Commerce of, 1851-2..........603, 617
Commerce of U. S. 1851..........618
Coal Supply of Southwest..........625
Crystal Palace, New-York..........637
Cotton Crop—Its Disposition..........640

Destiny of Southern Population.......... 14
Delta of Mississippi..........167
Direct Trade of the South..........318
Dutch Commerce with Japan..........550
Debts of the States..........633

Expedition to the North Pole.......... 3
Emigration, Returns and Prospects, 1825, 1852..........414, 455

Franklin's, Sir John. Explorations, by Dr. Ely 2
Flax Cotton.......... 67
Florida Rail-Roads.......... 80
Fugitive Slave Law.......... 90
Florida Soils.......... 94
Farming—Profitable..........192
Florida Cotton Plant..........291
Fugitive Slave Law..........319
France, Trade with U. S..........403
Florida Keys..........414
Florida Ship Canal..........419
Foreign Trade of the South..........493
Fisheries..........514
Flour Trade of N. Orleans..........607

Gold—Result of Enormously Increased Product on Prices and Prosperity.......... 74
Georgia " 83, 85, 86
Georgia Agricultural Society..........103
Greece—Modern..........134, 219
Great Britain Compared with U. States in Commerce..........185
Grigg, John..........201
Guano for South..........293
Great Britain, Trade with U. S..........403
Guano, its History and Uses..........627

Horse Racing—Speed of Racers..........101
Hunt, Memucan..........416
Hungary in 1852, Resources, History, Revolution, etc., by Dr. Ely..........434
Hemp Trade of N. Orleans..........608
Howard E., Biography, &c..........636

Irkutsk and China Trade.......... 40
Isthmus of Tehuantepec.......... 45
Insurance on Western Rivers..........103
Immigrants to U. States..........196, 414, 455
Italy, Notes from..........426
Islands of the Pacific..........457

Japan—Empire of, its History, Commerce, Resources, Government, Etc., by Dr. Ely.......... 541

Key West..........414
Kentucky Rail-Road..........528

Lands, Public, of Texas.......... 53
Louisiana Sugar Trade.......... 74
Life—Loss of in West.......... 96
Lafitte..........102
Levees of Louisiana..........167
Longworth, Nicholas..........199
Lafitte..........204, 422
Louisiana Medical College.......... 212
Leeches, Trade in..........300
Louisiana, Spanish Rule in..........383
Louisiana Rail-Roads..........81, 526, 424
Lard Trade of N. Orleans..........608
Land Donation to the States..........633
Louisiana Public Debt..........634

Mortality of Whites and Blacks at the South.......... 18
Minerals of Russia.......... 27
Mississippi—Mouth of..........104
Mississippi—Overflow of its Delta..........167
Medical College of Louisiana..........212
McBee, V..........314
Mexico in 1852, History, Product, Soil, Resources, etc. etc., by Dr. Ely..........326
Mississippi River Improvement..........420
Marine of the World..........514
Missouri Rail-Road..........522
Mississippi " 85
Mississippi, Mouth of—Obstructions and their Removal and Losses by..........523
Mobile—Commerce, 1852..........604
Massachusetts—Her Position in 1852..........605
Molasses Trade of N. Orleans..........606
Militia of U. S..........621

New-Orleans Navy-Yard..................101
National Agricultural Society.............207
Nicaragua..............................236
Nicaragua—Face of Country, Climate, Products, Etc. by Dr. Ely..................246
New-Orleans Rail-Road...................307
New-Orleans Grave Yards.................310
" Mortality..................311
N. Carolina " 409, 528
New-Orleans—Commercial Statistics, 1851, 1852..................................507
New-York Trade.........................513
Navigation of the World.................514
New-Orleans, Navy-Yard... 533
New-Orleans—Statistics of her Commerce, 1851–52, in Every Particular............606
N. Orleans Tonnage, Flatboats, Freights, Prices, Coinage, &c......................611
N. Orleans Mortality, 1852................612
Navy of U. States.........................614
New-York...............................638

Ohio River Canal.........................410

Population, Laws which govern it......... 17
Polar Regions........................... 43
Pacific—Distances from U. States......... 49
Public Lands of Texas.................... 53
Plantation Record........................194
Pauper Relief............................206
Pacific Rail-Road.........................425
Pacific, Islands of........................457
Polynesia................................461
Tobacco Trade of N. Orleans..............607
Pork Trade of N. Orleans.................608
Postage Law of 1852......................613
Plantation Scene.........................630

Richardson's, Sir John, Exploration....... 3
Ross Capt. Explorations.................. 12
Russian Fairs, &c........................ 22
Rail-Roads of Florida..................... 80
" " Tennessee.........80, 81, 83, 87
" " Louisiana...........81, 424, 526
" " Virginia.........82, 87, 425, 525
" " Georgia...............83, 85, 86
" " S. Carolina...83, 85, 86, 307, 528
" " Mississippi.................. 85
" " Arkansas................86, 526
" " Texas................86, 87, 527
" " Alabama.................... 87
" " N. Carolina.................528
Rice Crop and Trade......................195
Revenues, Ancient and Modern.......230, 354
Rail-Road of New-Orleans.................307
Roman Revenues and Taxes...............354
Rail-Road and Canal Transport...........408
Rail-Road to Pacific......................425
Rail-Road in Southwest...................430
Rail-Road of Missouri 522
Rail-Road System of the U. S.—Progress and Operations of the Rail-Road System of the U States, Freights, Passengers, Influences on Lands, Cities, &c., Connection of South with West, Prospects of the Future.................................571
Rail-road Extent of U. S.................572
" Illinois Central................582
Religious Statistics of U. S..............614
Revenues and Expenditures of the States..633

Southern Population, its Destiny.......... 13
Slave Population of the South............ 14
Siberia, by Dr. Ely...................... 19
St. Petersburg. 25
Siberian Exiles.......................... 35
Sugar-Cane.............................. 75
Southern Industrial Interests............ 71
Sugar—New Method of Production 72
" Crop, Louisiana, 1851, 1852........... 2
" Demand of the West................ 74
St. Louis Tobacco Trade.............. 78
S. Carolina..............83, 85, 86, 307, 528
Slaves Fugitive.......................... 90
Smets A.—His Biography................ 97
Steam-boat Speed in the West............100
Sugar Product and Manufacture.......177, 391
" Soils.............................180
" of India.......................183
St. Louis Commerce.............188, 406, 513
Slaves—Management of...................193
Southern School Books...................258
School Books for South..................258
Sugar—New Method.......................292
Steam Marine of U. S................309, 319
Southern Direct Trade...................318
Spain, History and Resources............368
Spirits, Adulteration of................ 397
Steam-Boat Accidents....................411
South Carolina, Resources...............412
Smithsonian Institute....................421
Sandwich Islands---History, Progress, Resources of, etc.........................465
Southern Commercial Independence.......477
Sugar-Cane, Constituents of..............503
Sugar Trade, N. Orleans..................508
Slaveholding States..,....................535
Spain—History, Resources, Commerce, Population, Education, Government, Finances, Religion, &c......................563
Sugar-House, its Effects on Consumptive Patients................................598
St. Louis...............................613

Tobolsk................................. 29
Tehuantepec............................. 45
" Survey of..................... 47
" Rail-road..................... 49
Tehuantepec—Products, Soil, Resources, Climate, Etc., of....................... 51
Texas Public Lands...................... 53
Tobacco Trade of St Louis............... 79
Tennessee Rail-Roads.......80, 81, 83, 87, 157
Texas " 86, 87, 523
Texas Progress.......................... 93
Texas Fair...............................103
Tennessee—Manufactures and Internal Improvements...........................157
Taxation, Ancient and Modern.......230, 354
Tobacco Trade, N. Orleans................607
Tobacco Trade................ 519
Texas Stock Raising......................519
Tonnage of U. S..... ....618, 621
Texas---Soil, Climate and Products........632

Ural Mountains.......................... 23
U. S. Coffee Trade....................... 77
U. States Compared with Great Britain in Commerce..............................185
U. S. Emigration.........................196
U. S. Agricultural Statistics..............295
U. S Commerce, 1820, 1851...............298
U. S. Steam Marine......................309
U. S. Trade with Britain and France.......403
U. S. Commerce, 1851....................515
United States—Imports from all Countries.618
" Shipping, Vessels Built, &c..621
" Militia.....................621
" Exports to all Countries.620, 623
Union---What it Embraces in Extent and People.................................638

Virginia Practical Men................... 90
Virginia Agricultural Statistics...........195
Virginia Springs.........................425
Virginia Foreign Trade...................493
Virginia Trade...........................513
Virginia Internal Improvement Convention, 525
Virginia Rail-Roads..............82, 87, 425
Virginia Int. Improvement Convention.....641

Wealth, National........................ 95
Western Rivers—Loss of Life on.......... 96
Woman and the Woman's Rights Movement and Convention.....................263
Western Life, Early......................279
Wisconsin...............................417

THE

INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES, ETC.,

OF THE

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES:

EMBRACING A VIEW OF THEIR

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BY J. D. B. DE BOW,

PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL ECONOMY, ETC., IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

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Wishing that your persevering exertions may be justly appreciated, and may be attended with encouragement and success, I am your obedient servant. H. CLAY.

J. D. B. DE BOW, Esq.

GENERAL INDEX OF THE THREE VOLUMES

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African Slave Trade..........vol. iii. p. 132
Abolitionism..........................ii. 250
Africa, British Settlements in........i. 112
Agriculture—South Carolina and Louisiana Agricultural Societies—progress of and agricultural knowledge at the South—papers upon Sugar Manufacture—Orations of Hon. P. A. Rost and J. D. B. De Bow..........................i. 62
Agriculture of the West..............ii. 2
Agriculture of Kentucky.............i. 403
Agricultural products of United States by the Census 1850..................i. 78
Agricultural products of United States, Appendix..................i. 454—iii. 498
Agricultural products, Analysis of....i. 81
Agricultural products, new ones for the South..........................i. 81
Agricultural Systems...............ii. 391
Agricultural products, new ones for United States.........................i. 391
Agriculture—Louisiana Agricultural Society —Address of J.D. B. De Bow......i. 169
Agricultural Library..................i. 74
Alabama—history, progress, resources, from discovery to 1852.........i. 43—iii. 480
Alabama—resources and share contributed to national wealth..................i. 57
Alabama—iron and other mineral products..............................i. 59
Alabama—coal lands..................i. 60
Alabama—rail-roads.............ii. 446, 528
Alabama—factories.... ....i. 233
America—interior valley of North America—boundaries, appearance, climate, natural history, population..................i. 1
America, British—our relations with; Canada, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, Lake Trade, New-Brunswick, &c............i. 9, 455
America, British—extent, progress, liberal principles, destinies................i. 16
America, South—history and progress, revolutions, Spanish colonial policy, independence, Poinsett's views, North and South America contrasted, Araucania, Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Brazil, Chili, Colombia, Brazil, Ecuador, Grenada, Venezuela, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, Patagonia, &c. i. 26
America, Central—Copan, Quirigua, Palenque, Guatemala........................i. 38
American and British Commerce Compared........................vol. i. p. 331
American Coinage....................i. 297
American Commerce—early growth..i. 307
American Commerce before Revolution i. 307
Amazon Valley... ....i. 367—iii. 5, 20
Arkansas and its natural advantages...i. 84
Arkansas—resources of......i. 85—iii. 496
Arkansas—geology.... ....i. 85
Arkansas—minerals...................i. 86
Arkansas—mines......................i. 86
Arkansas—river lands and facts for emigrants.............................i. 87
Arkansas—route through to the Pacific Ocean............................ii. 504
Arkansas—rail-roads............ii. 444, 519
Area and population of the states....iii. 425
Arts—growth of....................iii. 449
Ancient commerce....................i. 301
Antiquities of the Southwest..........i. 46
Analysis of crops of the United States..i. 81
Australia, (see also De Bow's Review, December, 1852).......................i. 112

Baconian Philosophy................iii. 449
Baltimore—history, resources, statistics of..............................i. 101
Baltimore—population and trade......ii. 52
Bank capital of the states.............i. 105
Banks of United States...............i. 290
Bank of North Carolina.............ii. 176
Banks and Banking Capital of the United States.......................... ......i. 106
Banking—history of in United States..i. 104
Baton Rouge Rail-road..............ii. 537
Berlin and Milan Decrees, and loss of American property......................i. 316
Boston—progress, and wealth and statistics of.........................i. 100, 454
Boston—real estate, 1850............ii. 439
Boston—exports......................i. 320
Bolivia..............................i. 32
Boone, Daniel..............i. 404—iii. 488
Book Trade of United States........ii. 558
British Colonial Empire—its extent..i. 109
British and American Commerce Compared.............................i. 331
British Commerce with United States.i. 321
British America.....................i. 9, 16
British Cotton Trade................i. 124

British Manufacturing System, vol. ii. p. 131
British Navy......................ii. 192
British West Indies................iii 537
British Provision Trade..............iii. 44
Breadstuffs—statistics of foreign and American.................................i. 88
Breadstuffs—Wheat and Corn Trade..i. 93
Breadstuffs—exports, flour, &c. from United States and elsewhere...............i. 97
Breadstuffs—preservation of wheat and flour...............................i. 98
Brazil Coffee Trade..................i. 286
Brazil..............................i. 32
Burr, Aaron..............i. 401—iii. 492

Cattle in United States............i. 78, 444
Caterpillar.......................i. 157, 167
Carolina, North...................ii. 167
Canal and Rail-road Statistics......iii. 570
Canals of the North................ii. 451
Canals of the West.................ii. 458
Cannelton Factory..................ii. 122
Calhoun's Letter on Slavery.........ii. 265
Calhoun's Memphis Convention Report..............................iii. 440
Calhoun's Views on Internal Improvements............................iii. 440
California—Fremont's Expedition....i. 264
California—New American El Dorado, Mineral products of, etc........i. 269—ii. 488
California—New Mexico, and the Passage between the Atlantic and Pacific....i 256
California—Gold Product............i. 464
Canals of the Northwest.............i. 450
Canada—history, extent, resources, population, institutions, progress, etc.....i. 455
Canada—trade with U. S...i. 10, 17—iii. 531
Census returns of the United States 1790 to 1850..........................iii. 431
Canadian Commerce................iii. 551
Census 1850—agricultural products....i. 78
Central America.....................i. 38
Ceylon Cottons......................i. 197
Charleston, History of...............i. 243
Charleston, Commerce of.......i. 245, 454
Charleston—its history, trade, commerce, manufactures, imports, education, health, &c.................................i. 245
Charleston—statistical tables of..i. 249–251
Charleston—Rice Trade.............ii. 408
Charleston—Mortality..............ii. 294
Charleston—Mortality..............iii. 90
Charleston and Hamburg Rail-road—its history.............................iii. 102
Charleston—Commerce.............iii. 138
Chesapeake Bay...................iii. 468
Chicago Internal Improvement Convention..............................i. 254
Chicago...........................ii. 556
Champlain, Lake.....................i. 447
China Trade.........................i. 324
Chili.............................i. 31, 35
Cincinnati—statistics, trade and commerce...........i. 251, 445, 455—ii. 556
Cincinnati hog trade................i. 376
Civil Law in Louisiana.........vol. i. p. 428
Cities of the United States—their population.............................ii. 559
Coffee and the Coffee Trade..........i. 278
Coffee Trade........................i. 287
Coffee—early history of.............i. 278
Corn, Indian—its history............i. 391
Corn crop of United States............i. 79
Corn Law of Great Britain...........i. 319
Coins, currency, etc.; material used for coinage, history of coins, interference of government with coins, value of ancient and modern coins; American coinage...i. 289
Coins—History of....................i. 292
Coal trade of Ohio..................ii. 348
Coal trade of Pennsylvania..........iii. 552
Coal and Iron of West.....i. 385—iii. 511
Coal resources of Penn.....ii. 370—iii. 553
Coal of Alabama......................i. 61
Coal of Arkansas.....................i. 87
Coal of North Carolina.............iii. 180
Coal of the World..................ii. 558
Colombia.............................i. 36
Colorado Valley....................iii. 476
Consular System.....................i. 298
Commerce—its origin, progress, and influences............................i. 300
Commerce—progress of American, and history and statistics of our trade with all countries of the world..............i. 310
Commerce of Lakes............i. 445, 452
Commerce of America before Revolution...............................i. 313
Commercial Statistics United States.iii. 554
Commercial statistics United States and Great Britain.....................i. 331
Commercial Education in Universities.i. 332
Commerce and wealth of Boston.i. 100 & 454
Commerce—Ancient..................i. 301
Commerce of Virginia..........iii. 460–463
Commerce of Baltimore...............i. 104
Commerce of Pennsylvania...........ii. 369
Commerce of Philadelphia...........ii. 376
Commerce of New-York..............ii. 160
Commerce of New-Orleans...........ii. 150
Commercial Conventions at South.iii. 92, 110
Commercial resources of the South...iii. 120
Commercial resources of California...i. 272
Commerce of the South—its extension by sea.............................iii. 14
Commerce of Charleston..............i. 244
Commerce—its purpose and destiny..i. 309
Commerce of America, 17th century..i. 311
Commerce from 1700 to 1776....i. 312, 313
Commerce from 1776 to 1790.........i. 314
Commerce from 1790 to 1850.........i. 314
Commerce of United States...........i. 327
Commerce of United States with Great Britain...........................iii. 553
Commerce of the different States....i. 327
Commerce of Britain & United States.i. 331
Commerce of Canada..................i. 460
Commerce of Maine..................ii. 56
Commerce of Mobile.................ii. 77
Commercial Library..................i. 333

Commercial Convention of Virginia..iii. 463
Commercial Systems................ii. 396
Commercial History of the U. S.....iii. 381
Commerce of U. S.—early.....iii. 379, 392
Commerce of Britain and United States compared..........................iii. 435
Commerce of the World.............ii. 557
Constitution of the United States....iii. 436
Convention at Memphis..............ii. 81
Coasts of the United States..........iii. 395
Copyright.....................iii. 447–451
Credit and capital—their influence...iii. 100
Cotton—history and statistics, with history of the plant, its manufacture and commerce............................i. 114
Cotton Planter's Convention..........i. 128
Cotton Planter's Convention Reviewed, i. 134
Cotton Planter's Convention—the true remedy...........................i. 137
Cotton Trade of the South—prices, stock, supply, demand, foreign competition, consumption, home and foreign statistics, &c...............................i. 139
Cotton Factories of Lowell............ii. 76
Cotton Factories of Mexico...........ii. 99
Cotton Manufactures of United States.ii. 103
Cotton Manufactures.................ii. 131
Cotton Trade of New-Orleans........ii. 147
Cotton goods, exports................i. 320
Cotton Statistics.............i. 146—ii. 557
Cotton, Sea Island...................i. 127
Cotton Crop of U. S. 1851...........i. 147
Cotton Trade and Statistics...........i. 149
Cotton, and its Cost of Production....i. 150
Cotton—Meteorology, and the Cotton and Sugar Crops.....................i. 152
Cotton—affected by Frosts............i. 152
Cotton Trade of Great Britain........i. 152
Cotton—Exports, 1851...............i. 153
Cotton—Prices at Mobile for 16 years, (see New-Orleans)....................i. 153
Cotton Crops for a Series of Years....i. 154
Cotton—Diseases of the Plant, and the Remedies..........................i. 155
Cotton Preparation—Picking and Packing...............................i. 158
Cotton—Baled with Iron Hoops......i. 159
Cotton—Cost of Producing...........i. 161
Cotton—Analysis of..................i. 164
Cotton Plant.........................i. 165
Cotton Worm—History, Character, Visitations.............................i. 166
Cotton Caterpillar...................i. 170
Cotton Worms.......................i. 171
Cotton Plantation Statistics...........i. 173
Cotton Receipts at New-Orleans, (see New-Orleans)........................i. 174
Cotton and its Prospects—American and Foreign Product; Demand and Supply of the World; India Cottons and Competition; Future Prospects, &c.........i. 174
Cotton Culture in East Indies, (Prize Essay)..............................i. 178
Cotton of India......................i. 190
Cotton Culture in the East............i. 191
Cotton Culture in British Provinces..i. 195
Cotton—British Competition.........i. 196
Cotton of Jamaica...................i. 198
Cotton and Cotton Manufacture—History from Origin to Date...............i. 198
Cotton Manufactures of the U. S......i. 211
Cotton Manufactures in the United States—History of.........................i. 216
Cotton Manufactures—Consumption of Cotton.............................i. 219
Cotton Mills of New-England.........i. 220
Cotton Manufacture—Improvements in Machinery, &c.........................i. 220
Cotton—Relation between Price and Manufacture...........................i. 222
Cotton—Present and Future Prospects of Great Britain in relation to Supply and Demand.............................i. 223
Cotton Spindles in Great Britain.....i. 227
Cotton Manufacture—How far carried.i. 228
Cotton Mills by Cotton Growers—An Export Tax..........................i. 228
Cotton Factory, South Carolina......i. 232
Cotton Factories in the South.......i. 233
Cotton Manufactures—Essay by Chas. T. James, of R. I....................i. 233
Cotton, cost of transporting to European markets............................i. 462
Cotton Crop, 1852..........i. 462—iii. 555
Cotton Crop United States.........iii. 555
Cotton Manufactures................i 463
Cotton Crop of the World...........i. 122
Currency of United States...........i. 107
Currency of United States..........iii. 575
Cuba Sugar Estate.................iii. 110
Cuba Tobacco.....................iii. 345
Cuba—Statistics of Population and Industry................i. 277—iii. 522, 531
Cuba trade.......................iii. 551
Cuba—our commerce with..........iii. 577

Danish West Indies................iii. 549
Denmark Commerce with U. S........i. 323
De Soto's Expeditions................i. 42
Deposits of the Mississippi...........ii. 17
Delta of the Mississippi..............ii. 20
Deaths in United States, 1850.......iii. 428
Deaths in New-Orleans..............ii. 148
Debts, United States and States.....iii. 433
District of Columbia...............iii. 377
Direct Trade of the South............iii. 1
Direct Trade of the South with the Continent..........................iii. 117
Dutch West Indies.................iii. 549

East India Cotton...................i. 179
East India Rice.....................ii. 432
East India Sugar Culture............iii. 299
Ecuador............................i 37
Education in Virginia...............iii. 454
Elmore—Report at the Southern Merchants' Convention......................iii. 110
Emancipation of Slaves.............ii. 250
Emancipation in Kentucky...........i. 407
Emancipation of Slaves in West Indies iii.535

Emigration from Great Britain. iii. 555—565
English Commerce, Early............i. 305
Erie, Lake............................i. 447
Everglades of Florida.................i. 344
Exports and Imports of United States with all Nations....-...................iii. 581

Factories, Cost and Statistics of.....ii. 125
Finances, United States and States..iii. 433
Fires, Statistics of.....................i. 352
Fisheries of Florida.....................i. 348
Fisheries of United States...........ii. 195
Fisheries, Statistics of......i. 352, 463, 318
Flatboat Commerce of New-Orleans..ii. 137
French in Louisiana.....................i. 412
French Commerce with U. S. i. 322—iii. 553
French Colony in Alabama...........i. 56
French Navy.........................ii. 192
Flax and Linen Factories............ii. 133
Florida Wreckers.......................i. 407
Florida Peninsular Road........ii. 457, 522
Florida Resources........................i. 334
Florida Productions......................i. 336
Florida Everglades, and prospect of reclaiming them into gardens for tropical fruits.......................................i. 344
Florida Coasts and Keys..............i. 348
Florida Tobacco..........................i. 349
Florida—Climate, Soil and Products..i. 349
Florida Sugar Lands....................i. 351
Florida Sugar...........................iii. 276
Foreigners in United States....iii. 399, 424
Foreign Trade of the South......iii. 1, 105
Frankfort, Kentuky.......................i. 406
Free and Slave Labor....................ii. 248
Fur Trade of America.......i. 318—iii. 516
Fugitive Slaves..........................iii. 426
Fugitive Slaves at the North.........iii. 128

Galveston, Texas..............iii. 339, 340
Georgia—Situation, Boundaries, Soil, Products, Minerals, Resources.........i. 354
Georgia—Population, Internal Improvements, Enterprise, Manufactures, Springs, Education.................i. 358—ii. 521
Georgia—Products.......................i. 361
Georgia—Topography...................i. 362
Georgia...................................iii. 141
Geology of Louisiana....................i. 436
Government—its Province...........ii. 390
Gold and Silver—U. S. Mint Statistics.......................i. 373—ii. 558
Gold of California................i. 374, 464
Gold Coinage..............................i. 291
Gold, History of..........................i. 291
Gold of Virginia........................iii. 461
Gold Resources of California.........i. 273
Grain Trade of England................i. 89
Grain of the United States and world.......................i. 89—ii. 558
Grave-yards at New-Orleans..........ii. 139
Creat Britain—Commerce with.....iii. 553
Greek Commerce..........................i. 303
Guatemala...................................i. 41
Guadaloupe................................iii. 533

Gulf Stream..............................i. 367
Gulf of Mexico..........................iii. 7
Hay and Hemp Crop, U. S.............i. 80
Harper's Memoir on Slavery.........ii. 205
Hanse Towns, ...i. 325
Hayti..............i. 325—ii. 433—iii. 549
Hammonds' Letters on Slavery......ii. 238
Hayne, R. Y.—Commercial Report...iii. 92
Havana....................................iii. 527
Health and Diseases at the South....iii. 85
Historical Society of Louisiana......i. 437
Hog Business of West...................i. 375
Huron, Lake.................................i. 452

Illinois......................i. 389—iii. 496
Illinois—Rail-roads of..................ii. 450
Imports and Exports of United States with all Nations..................iii. 577-584
Indiana....................................iii. 497
Indiana—Resources, &c......i. 379; iii. 497
Indiana—Rail-roads of..................ii. 450
Insurrections among Slaves...........ii. 231
Industry, new branches of.............i. 390
Industry of South........................iii. 45
Industrial Revolution at the South...iii. 76
Internal Improvements—Calhoun's Report on Memphis Convention Reviewed. iii. 441
Internal Improvements by Federal Government—how distributed between States since 1790..............i. 391—ii. 516
Internal Improvement Convention at Chicago...i. 255
Inventions—their influence..........iii. 451
Inundations of Mississippi.............ii. 13
India..................................i. 107, 190
Indians of Louisiana.....................i. 415
Indigo—cultivation at South....iii. 50, 356
Indian Corn................................i. 391
Indians of Alabama and Georgia......i. 45
Indian Wars in the Southwest.......i. 54
Indian Wars of Louisiana.............ii. 251
Indian Territory.........................iii. 497
Insurance of Character..................i. 394
Insurance of Negroes....................ii. 299
Iowa..iii. 497
Immigration to the U. S.....i. 381—iii. 395
Iron Interests of United States......i. 395
Iron Resources of Pennsylvania.....ii. 370
Iron product of the world.............ii. 558
Italian Commerce.................i. 304, 324

Jamaica...................................iii. 535
Jamaica, growth of Cotton in....i. 198, 280
Java..i. 279
Jewish Commerce..........................i, 302

Kentucky—Description, History, Schemes for Separate Existence, Burr, Western Excitement, Population and Products of Kentucky, Agriculture, Boone, Mineral Springs, Mammoth Cave, Internal Improvements, Education. Slavery, Statistics of Commerce and Towns..i. 398—iii. 496
Kentucky—Rail-roads....................ii. 444
Key-West—Wreckers of..................i. 407
Keys of Florida......................i. 337, 348

La Plata..............................i. 31
La Salle..............................i. 410
Law, John.............................i. 421
Lakes—Great Lakes of U. S., and Commerce of..............................i. 443
Lakes and Western Trade...........i. 445
Lakes and Valley Trade, Statistics of, with Population and Wealth of lake country of United States and Canada.......i. 447
Lakes and Western River Navigation.i. 449
Lakes, British and American Marine on, i. 451
Lake Commerce of 1850, &c..........i. 452
Lakes of United States................i. 2
Land Titles of Texas................iii. 327
Lands—Public of United States.......i. 443
Lands—Public of United States, History of Land Office, Value of Sales, Prices and Grants, Area, Pre-emption, Mineral Lands, Statistics....................i. 438
Lands—Cultivated and Uncultivated in the United States......................i. 78
Levees at New-Orleans..............ii. 136
Lexington, Kentucky..................i. 406
Libraries in the United States........ii. 558
Life Statistics—Whites and Blacks..ii. 292
Life—Early in the West............iii. 487
Louisiana......................iii. 480, 496
Louisiana—History and Progress; French and Spanish History, Purchase, Delivery, Territorial Government, Code of 1808; Advances of State, Battle of Orleans, Black Code, Code of 1825, Jurisprudence, Courts, &c......................i. 417
Louisiana—Minerals..................i. 434
Louisiana Historical Society.........i. 436
Louisiana—Well Water..............i. 437
Louisiana—Her progress in Sugar Industry..............................i. 68
Louisiana—Origin of Sugar Culture...i. 69
Louisiana—Histories of.............i. 148
Louisiana—Purchase.................i. 427
Louisiana—Laws.....................i. 432
Louisiana—Early History.ii. 29; iii. 480, 491
Louisiana—Rice.....................ii. 426
Louisiana—Rail-roads.....ii. 449, 536, 546
Louisiana—Sugar Crops...........iii. 284
Louisville, Kentucky, Commerce.i. 452, 407
Lowell Manufactories...............ii. 76
Lumber Business of North Carolina..ii. 182

Maine—Early History, physical aspect, agricultural and mineral resources, commerce, manufactures, government, finances, population, schools, colleges.............ii. 53
Machinery—Province of.......iii. 450, 558
Manufactures of United States 1850.iii. 577
Massachusetts—Productive energies and spirit ....ii. 67, 560
Maryland—Historical Events, government, resources, improvements, commerce, city of Baltimore ....ii. 45
Master and Slave ....ii 212
Mail System of Britain and U. States..ii. 352
McDuffie's Report at Southern Mercantile Convention ....iii. 103
Manufactures—Inducements for, in South and West ....ii. 107; iii. 500, 513
Manufactures—Influence on the growth of cities...............................ii. 121
Manufactures—Progress of Cotton Manufacture in United States............ii. 123
Manufactures—Extension of Cotton and Wool manufacture at the South....ii. 124
Manufactures—Relative cost of steam and water power.......................ii. 128
Manufactures of Great Britain—Progress in cotton, wool, flax, linen, silk, etc., with productions and persons employed..ii. 131
Manufactures of the United States..iii. 429
Manufacture of Shoes at the South..ii. 130
Manufacturing Industry—Theory of Manufactures, progress, origin, and growth of cotton manufactures in all countries, United States manufactures, Southern manufactures ....ii. 101
Manufactures—Value of home-made in U. States................................i. 80
Manufactures of Cotton—History and progress..............................i. 198
Manufactures of the Ancients.........i. 202
Manufactures, advantages of.........ii. 119
Manufacturing towns................ii. 192
Manufactures of United States .....iii. 429
Manufactory—Cost of..............iii. 559
Mammoth Cave ....i. 405
Martinique ....iii. 533
Massachusetts in 1852.............iii. 558
Matanzas..............................iii. 529
Memphis, Tenn.......................ii. 80
Memphis Convention, 1845...........ii. 81
Memphis Convention, 1849..ii. 82, 506: iii. 440.
Mexican Gulf, its military and naval defences ....i. 363
Mexican Republic....................ii. 85
Mexican mines and mineral resources..ii. 92
Mexican War—Services of South and North in ....iii. 128
Mexico—Products, sugar, cotton, rice, and indigo ....ii. 99
Mexico, New..........................i. 266
Mexico.....................i. 325; iii. 557
Mexico, sugar production of ....iii. 284
Military strength of the South ....ii. 233
Militia of U. States.................iii. 582
Milwaukie ....iii. 518
Michigan Lake.........................i. 447
Michigan ....iii. 497
Mississippi River—Its sources, mouth and valley, Balize, etc....................ii. 1
Mississippi River, great importance of improving ....ii. 10
Mississippi River, deposits and changes at mouth.................................ii.. 17
Mississippi Basin ....ii. 20
Mississippi—Early History of the State.ii. 21
Mississippi—Character, soil, climate, products, prospects..........ii. 41; iii. 495
Mississippi, Resources of.............ii. 45
Mississippi Rail-Roads..........ii. 445, 523

Mississippi Valley—Geology, hydrography, population, climate, natural history, &c. .... i. 4; iii. 479
Mississippi Valley .... i. 367
Mississippi Bars .... iii. 18
Mineral Resources of Missouri .... ii. 63, 66
Mineral Resources of Mexico .... ii. 93
Mineral Lands of United States ..... i. 441
Minerals of South Carolina .... iii. 135
Minerals of North Carolina .... ii. 180
Minerals of Alabama .... i. 59
Minerals of Louisiana .... i. 435
Mines of gold and silver .... i. 293
Middle Ages—Commerce of .... i. 304
Missouri Rail-Roads .... ii. 449, 526
Missouri—History, government, courts, surface, products, climate, rivers, towns, minerals, internal improvements, population, &c. .... ii. 56; iii. 496
Missouri .... iii. 147
Molasses—Product, &c. of U. States .. ii. 70
Mobile—Commerce 1850–52 .. ii. 70; iii. 555
Mobile—Topography, vital statistics, &c., &c. .... ii. 78
Mobile—Statistics of .... ii. 78
Mobile—Early History .... i. 48
Mobile and Ohio Rail-Road ..... ii. 445, 533
Mobile—Prices of Cotton since 1835 .. i. 154
Mobile—Commerce in 1851–2 ...... iii. 565
Mocha .... i. 279
Money—Its early history .... i. 289
Money—What it is .... i. 290
Monterey .... ii. 503
Mouths of the Mississippi .... ii. 7
Mulatto Population South and North .. ii. 297
Mortality of United States .... iii. 427

Nashville, Tenn. .... ii. 185
Navigation—Ship-Building in United States, particularly in West .... i. 185
Navigation—Merchant fleets and navies of the world .... ii. 192, 557
Navigation—Vessels built in United States since 1815 .... ii. 194
Navigation—Tonnage of U. States .. ii. 195
Navies of the world .... ii. 188
Navy Yards of the United States .... ii. 191
Navy of United States, 1852 .... iii. 573
Natchez War .... ii. 23
Negroes in factories .... i. 232
Negroes—Effect of emancipation in West Indies .... ii. 279
Negroes—Physiology of .... iii. 55
Negro Mania—The negro and other races of men .... ii. 197
Negro Slavery—Memoir on, by Chancellor Harper, prepared for, and read before the Society for the Advancement of Learning of South Carolina .... ii. 205
Negro Slavery at the South—(Gov. Hammond's Letter to Clarkson,) introduction; the slave trade and futile attempts to abolish it; prescriptive right of slavery; slavery in the abstract; in its moral and religious aspects; in its political influences, as affecting public order, and the safety and power of the state; abolition, emancipation, etc. .... ii. 238
Negro Slavery—J. C. Calhoun's Letter to Mr. King .... ii. 265
Negro Laws of the South .... ii. 269
Negro Population of the South, with reference to life insurance .... ii. 292
Negro Slavery—Origin, progress and prospects of slavery in the U. States .. ii. 393
Negro nature and destiny of .... ii. 306
Negro Slavery—Decline of Northern and growth of Southern .... ii. 310
Negro Population—Remedy for its excess .... ii. 313
Negroes—Diseases and peculiarities of, by Dr. Cartwright .... ii. 315
Negroes—Physical character of ..... ii. 329
Negroes—Management of, upon Southern estates .... ii. 330, 333, 337
Negroes—Houses for .... ii. 338
Negroes—Black and Mulatto Population of the South .... ii. 338
Negroes—Employment of, in cotton factories .... ii. 339
Negroes—Slave Trade of the South .. ii. 339
Negro Civilization and the Dominican Republic .... ii. 342
Negroes of ancient times .... ii. 343
Negroes—(*See Slaves*) .... ii.
New-Orleans—Receipts of Cotton at, since 1823 .... i. 174
New-Orleans coffee trade .... i. 287
New-Orleans—Battle of .... i. 429
New-Orleans Municipalities .... i. 435
New-Orleans Rail-Road Convention .. ii. 455
New-Orleans Rail-Road System ..... ii. 435
New-Orleans .... ii. 135; iii. 484
New-Orleans custom-house revenues since 1801 .... ii. 139
New-Orleans—Vital statistics of .. ii. 141, 142
New-Orleans—Imports from the interior, from 1840 to 1852 ... ii. 143. iii. 487, 559
New-Orleans—Exports of flour, pork, bacon, beef, lard, whisky, corn, etc. .... ii. 144
New-Orleans—Exports of cotton and tobacco .... ii. 144
New-Orleans—Exports of sugar and molasses .... ii 145
New-Orleans—Arrival of ships, barques, steamers, etc. .... ii. 145
New-Orleans and New-York .... ii. 145
New-Orleans—The commercial statistics of .... ii. 146 & 149
New-Orleans—Vital statistics, mortality, etc., from 1785 .... ii. 148
New-Orleans—Prices of commodities, etc., for different years .... ii. 152
New-Orleans—Importance of increasing her foreign commerce—Her banking capital .... ii. 152, 483
New-Orleans—Commerce, &c. 1852 . iii. 559
New-York—Value of real and personal estate .... ii. 164
New-York—Commerce of ...... ii. 163, 560

New-York—Commercial growth and greatness of New-York...............ii. 154
Netherlands.......................i. 324
New-Brunswick.................i. 11, 21
Newfoundland...................i. 11, 23
New Grenada.......................i. 36
New Holland......................i. 112
New Mexico.......................i. 266
Newspapers in United States.ii. 560; iii. 428
Nicaragua................ii. 492; iii. 559
North America....................i. 2
Nova Scotia....................i. 11, 23
Norway...........................i. 323
Northern and Southern progress....iii. 122
Northern and Southern slavery.....iii. 131
Northern States—Their profit from Federal Union.........................iii. 365
North Carolina—Turpentine.......iii. 350
North Carolina—Colonial, revolutionary and subsequent history, physical condition, production, industry and resources, population, towns, education, sects, courts, canals, rail-roads................ii. 164
North Carolina............ii. 182; iii. 519
North West.......................iii. 490
N. Carolina internal improvements..iii. 519

Ohio—Commerce and resources of...ii. 345
Ohio—Wealth, coal trade, etc....ii. 347; iii. 497.
Ohio River........................ii. 404
Ohio Rail-Roads..................ii. 449
Olives—Cultivation of, in the Southern States.........................ii. 348
Ontario Lake.....................i. 447
Opelousas Rail-Road...............ii. 541
Oregon—Rivers, etc., of......i. 2; iii. 477
O'Reilly..........................i. 423
Overflows of the Mississippi........ii. 13

Paraguay..........................i. 36
Patent Rights and Laws...........iii. 451
Paper manufacture in United States..ii. 384
Patagonia........................i. 38
Pacific Rail-Road..i. 256; ii. 506, 516, 519
Pacific—Our commerce in......ii. 489, 490
Pacific Rail-Road.................ii. 487
Paupers of Great Britain...........ii. 251
Panama...........................ii. 492
Parties in United States..........iii. 438
Pennsylvania—History, commerce, manufactures, agriculture.............ii. 365
Pennsylvania Coal Trade..........iii. 552
Peru..........................i. 31, 37
Pittsburgh, and its manufacturing industry..................ii. 375; iii. 509
Pilot System of the Mississippi.....ii. 8
Philadelphia—Commerce of the years 1830, 1851.................ii. 374, 294, 374
Phœnician Commerce...............i. 303
Philosophy—Growth of...........iii. 449
Plank Roads as compared with Rail-Roads.........................ii. 377
Planters of the South—Their remedy..i. 137
Planters—Should manufacture their own crops............................i. 229
Porto Rico.......................iii. 531
Post-Office—History of, in all countries; operations and statistics of, in the United States, from the earliest periods, rates of postage, etc....................ii. 350
Post-Office System of ancient times..ii. 363
Post-Office statistics, from 1790.....ii. 361
Political Economy, government, etc...ii. 385
Portugal—Commerce with U. States..i. 323
Population—Future of United States..i. 382
Population Great West......ii. 1; iii. 308
Population Massachusetts...........ii. 69
Population—Influence on Rail-Roads.ii. 436
Population United States since 1790..iii. 391
Population—United States Census 1790..iii. 404; 1800, 405; 1810, 406; 1820, 408; 1830, 410; 1840, 415; 1850, 419.
Population of the United States and Russia.............................iii. 400
Population of American Cities......ii. 559
Population of United States—Its laws, and general laws throughout the world.iii. 402
Population—Statistics of United States, by all the returns of census, &c., from 1700 to 1850...................iii. 404, 433
Population laws of in the world.....iii. 403
Population of U. States census 1850.iii. 573
Portage Laws United States, 1850..iii. 570
Provision Trade United States......ii. 558
Public lands of United States........i. 441
Public lands of the South..........iii. 26
Public Debt of United States.......iii. 92

Rail-Roads—Address to people of Southern and Western States.............ii. 434
Rail-Road and Transport, at home and abroad............................ii. 457
Rail-Road Convention at New-Orleans, 1852.............................ii. 458
Rail-Roads in U. States, 1852...ii. 471, 474
Rail-Roads—Progress in U. S...ii. 478, 486
Rail-Roads—Prospects and progress..ii. 478
Rail-Road communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans; progress of America, California and Oregon, Panama, Tehuantepec, &c.................ii. 486
Rail-Road Speed, accidents, etc......ii. 470
Rail-Roads—Benefits of............ii. 479
Ral-Roads—State aid to............ii. 481
Rail-Road to Pacific.i. 260; ii. 507, 516, 519
Rail-Roads of Georgia...i. 357, 359; ii. 521
Rail-Roads of North Carolina.......ii. 183
Rail-Roads—Their influence on population............................ii. 437
Rail-Roads—Influence on industry...ii. 438
Rail-Roads—Influence on wealth....ii. 438
Rail-Roads of Virginia.ii. 439; iii. 458, 464
Rail-Roads of Arkansas.............ii. 519
Rail-Roads in Georgia..............ii. 571
Rail-Roads in Florida...............ii. 522
Rail-Roads in Mississippi...........ii. 523
Rail-Roads in Missouri.............ii. 516

Rail-Roads in Tennessee .... ii. 526
Rail-Roads in Alabama .... ii. 528
Rail-Roads in Mobile and Ohio ...... ii. 533
Rail-Roads in Louisiana .... ii. 536, 546
Rail-Roads in Texas .... ii. 540
Rail-Roads in Tehuantepec .... ii. 553
Rail-Road Statistics .... ii. 441
Rail-Roads of South Carolina ...... ii. 441
Rail-Roads of South and West ...... ii. 445
Rail-Roads of the North .... ii. 451
Rail-Roads in the world .... ii. 456
Rail-Roads—Great Convention of South and West at New-Orleans .... ii. 459
Rail-Roads—System and Statistics in the United States .... ii. 476, 461
Rail-Roads of United States .... ii. 478
Rail-Roads—Speech at Nashville and Jackson .... ii. 479
Rail-Road and Canal statistics ..... iii. 570
Rail-Roads of South Carolina ...... iii. 573
Rail-Roads of North Carolina .... iii. 569
Religious Statistics United States ... iii. 574
Revolutionary War—Services of the South in .... iii. 127
Rice—History and Statistics of .... ii. 392
Rice Planting .... ii. 411
Rice—Analysis, crops, culture, etc. .. ii. 414
Rice—Culture of .... ii. 419
Rice in Southern States .... ii. 423
Rice Estate of Gov. Aiken .... ii. 424
Rice of the Uplands .... ii. 420
Rice of Louisiana .... ii. 427
Rice Culture in East Indies .... ii. 429
Rice Trade Carolina .... i. 250
Rice Mills .... ii. 404
Rice Culture, system of Carolina, etc. . ii. 423
Richmond .... iii. 458
Rio Janeiro .... i. 34
Rio Grande Valley .... iii. 475
River Basins and valleys .... i. 368
Rivers—Their influence on progress .. i. 369
Robb's Speech in the New-Orleans Convention .... ii. 152
Roman Slavery .... ii. 230
Roman Commerce .... i. 303
Russian Navy .... ii. 192
Russian Trade with United States ... i. 323

San Diego .... ii. 502
Savannah, Georgia .... iii. 13, 5739
Savannah—Commerce .... iii. 144
Savannah—Statistics of .... iii. 145
Sacramento, California .... i. 263
San Francisco .... i. 264; ii. 502
Santa Fe .... i. 269
Science and Art .... iii. 448
Sea Island Cotton .... i. 121
Silk and Silk Culture .... ii. 558
Silk Growth of United States .. i. 80; iii. 179
Silk Worms .... iii. 169
Sierra Nevada .... i. 262
Silver—History .... i. 292
Sheep Statistics of United States ... iii. 188
Sheep—Best breed for the South .... iii. 194
Ship Building in United States ...... ii. 186
Shoe Manufactures at South .... ii. 130
Sheep Husbandry in the Southern States .... iii. 188
Silk and Silk Culture—Origin, Early History, Progress—Manufactures, Silk in the United States; Advantages of the South for the Silk Industry .... iii. 160
Slater, the father of American cotton manutures .... i. 213
Slaves—See Negroes.
Slaves—Fugitive at the North .... iii. 128
Slaves—Dangers which Environ Slavery in the Union .... iii. 130
Slavery, North and South .... iii. 130
Slave Trade .... iii. 131
Slave Trade of Africa .... iii. 133
Slavery—Letters of Hammond ...... ii. 233
Slavery—John C. Calhoun's Letter to Mr. King .... ii. 265
Slave Labor .... ii. 65
Slavery of the South, what element it develops, as compared with the North . iii. 62
Slave Statistics of United States .... ii. 304
Slavery—Its history .... ii. 308
Slavery North and South .... ii. 310
Slaves—Remedy for their excess ..... ii. 313
Slaves—Diseases, treatment, &c. ... ii. 315
Slaves—Management of .... ii. 331
Slave Trade of the South .... ii. 340
Slave Labor in factories .... ii. 127
Slavery, etc. .... iii. 39
Slavery of the South .... iii. 55
Slavery—How to protect .... iii. 123
Slave Laws of Louisiana .... i. 430
Slavery contrasted with pauperism ... ii. 213
Slaves—Religious improvement ..... ii. 216
Slave Laws of the South .... ii. 269
Slaves—Manumitted and fugitive ... iii. 426
South America .... i. 26
South America—Trade with U. States . i. 325
South America—Commerce of .... i. 372
South America—Future trade with .. iii. 10
South Carolina—Industrial Institute . iii. 24
South—New products for .... i. 83
Southern Military strength .... ii. 233
Southern Slave Laws .... ii. 269
South—Health of .... ii. 299
South—Her tribute to the North .. ii. 483, 485
Southern Field for manufactures ..... ii. 108
Southern Competition in manufactures . iii. 29
Southern Products, tonnage, &c. ... iii. 40
Southern Staples, and commerce in .. iii. 48
Southern Society, manners, &c. .... iii. 66
Southern Planters, their character .. iii. 69
Southern Wealth and resources ..... iii. 70
Southern Cotton, sugar, rice, manufactures, internal improvements, &c. ...... iii. 74
Southern and Northern Trade ...... iii. 97
South—Her capacity to compete with North in supplying her own wants ...... iii. 117
South—Her adaptation for sheep husbandry .... iii. 189
South—Her interest in the Union ... iii. 190
South Carolina Rail-Roads .... iii. 572
Southern Direct Foreign Trade .... iii. 1

Southern Commerce—Its Extension by Sea............................iii. 14
Southern Industry—Progress of; Prospects of Cotton Interests, &c. ....iii. 24
South—Future of.....................iii. 37
Southern Industry..................iii. 45
South—Position in the Union—Emancipation, Abolition, Natural Law of Slavery, Physical Characteristics of Negroes, Fatal Results of Substituting White Labor for Black at the South...............iii. 53
South—How Affected by her Slave Institutions ....iii. 62
South and the Union—Resources and Wealth of the South, and What she has Contributed to the Growth of the Nation....iii. 70
Southern Industrial Revolution.......iii. 76
outh—Value of Life in.............iii. 83
Southern Commercial Convention—Resolutions..............................iii. 92
Southern Commercial Convention—Report of R. Y. Hayne..................iii. 92
Southern Commercial Convention—Report of George McDuffie...............iii. 103
Southern Commercial Convention—Report of F. Elmore......................iii. 111
Southern Direct Trade to the Continent of Europe..........................iii. 117
Southern Foreign Commerce.......iii. 119
Southern Commercial Resources Compared with those of the North...........iii. 120
South and the North................iii. 123
South—Her Mode of Convincing the North on the Slave Question.............iii. 123
Southern Wealth....................iii. 124
Southern Resources.................iii. 124
South-Tonnage Slave and Free States iii. 125
South—Public Domain of...........iii 126
Southern and Northern Troops in the Revolution..........................iii. 127
Southern and Northern Troops in the Mexican War.........................iii. 128
South Carolina—Minerals, Etc......iii. 134
South Carolina—Statistics—(See Charleston).............................iii. 135
South Carolina—Agriculture and Physical Capabilities, Territory, Climate, Soils, Navigation, Health, Minerals, Manures, Products, Etc...................iii. 136
Spanish West Indies................iii. 521
Spanish Trade with United States....i. 322
Spanish Parties in the West..ii. 32; iii. 489
Spanish Times in Louisiana.........i. 422
St Louis—History of.................ii 62
St. Domingo...............ii. 342; i. 279
St. Louis—Commerce of...........iii. 572
St. Louis—Commercial Advantages of iii. 145
St. Louis, and the Prospects of Missouri. (See Missouri)...................iii. 146
St. Louis—History of..............iii. 149
St Louis — Statistics of, and Commerce.............................iii. 151
Statistics of United States, early commerce...........................i. 313
Statistics—Science of..............iii. 157
Statistical Bureaus in the States.....iii. 157
Steam Tonnage of the lakes and of the West ....i. 448
Steam and Ship levees of N. Orleans.ii. 138
Steamers to South America ....iii. 9
Steamers from New-Orleans to England ....iii. 153
Steam in the West ....iii. 488
Steamers on the Hudson and the Mississippi rivers ....ii. 460
Steamboat Accidents in West ......iii. 572
Steam Marine of United States......iii. 577
Steamships—Prospectus for Establishing a Line of Propeller Steamers between New-Orleans and Liverpool............iii. 153
Steam Boiler Explosions.............iii 153
Steamboat Disasters in the West.... iii. 155
Sugar—Cultivation—Manufacture of.iii. 195
Sugar—Manufacture, Etc............iii. 207
Sugar Manufacture—Crystallization of Sugar—Chemical and other Doctrines of Sugar.............................iii. 213
Sugar Manufacture.
Sugar—Its Cultivation, Manufacture and Commerce, Etc....................iii. 249
Sugar Cane—Extracts from a Memoir on the Structure and Composition of the Sugar Cane,.............................iii. 262
Sugar Cane Culture on the most Successful Estates.........................iii. 266
Suger Planters, Notes for...........iii. 269
Sugar Industry of Louisiana, iii. 275–277, 282
Sugar of Florida...................iii. 276
Sugar of Louisiana....... iii. 282, 285, 286
Sugar Culture of Texas.............iii. 284
Sugar Trade of United States.......iii. 288
Sugar—Imports of..................iii. 289
Sugar Manufacture in Louisiana ....iii. 290
Sugar Culture in the East Indies....iii. 299
Sugar Culture in West Indies.......iii. 307
Sugar Estates of Cuba.............iii. 311
Sugar Trade of the World..........iii. 312
Sugar—Process of Culture, Manufacture, Etc.............................iii. 314
Sugar—Address of Judge Rost on its culture............................i. 63
Sugar—Affected by frosts...........i. 152
Sugar and Cotton of Florida.........i. 343
Sugar of Mexico ....ii. 99
Sugar Trade of New-Orleans—Prices, &c. ....ii. 152; iii. 482
Sugar Lands of Florida...............i. 351
Swedish Trade with United States....i. 323
Swedish West Indies...............iii. 549

Tariffs of United States..i. 330; iii. 444, 445
Tehuantepec Route.......ii. 457, 492, 553
Tehuantepec Treaty ....iii. 573
Tea Culture in the South...iii. 51, 355, 356
Tea Trade of China................iii. 52
Tea Culture in the South......iii. 355, 356
Texas ....ii. 547, 551
Texas Rail-Roads ....ii. 448, 550
Texas Sugar ....iii. 284, 331
Texas Annexation..................iii. 375

Texas—Climate, Rivers, Lands, Products, Animals, Minerals, Government, Etc............................iii. 321
Texas—Sugar Lands...............iii. 331
Texas—Resources, Products, Etc...iii. 335
Texas—Brazos Country.............iii. 337
Texas—Her Natural Advantages....iii. 338
Texas—Growth of..................iii. 339
Texas—Galveston, Etc.............iii. 341
Tennessee ....ii. 444; iii. 496
Tennessee Rail-Roads.............ii. 526
Territories of United States........iii. 393
Tobacco of Florida.................i. 349
Tobacco Trade of United States....iii. 349
Tobacco—Prize Essay on the Culture and Management of.....................iii. 341
Tobacco—Cuba.....................iii. 345
Tobacco—Growth and Consumption of in United States.....................iii. 346
Tonnage of Lakes.................i. 448
Tonnage of Great Britain and the United States ....ii. 194
Tonnage of the different States.....ii. 195
Tonnage of Great Britain and the United States compared................iii. 435
Tonnage of Free and Slave States..iii. 125
Tonnage of the world ....ii. 557
Turpentine Business of North Carolina..............................iii. 350
Turpentine—Process of Manufacture, Profits, Etc.......................iii. 350
Turpentine Business in Georgia....iii. 354

Union—Its Stability—British Policy in regard to Tropical Products and the Slave Trade, Commercial Advantages of the South ....iii. 356,357
United States—Progress of population from the earliest settlement .i. 309; ii. 558, 560
United States—Its commerce with other powers ....i. 321
United States Commerce with France and England ....iii. 554
United States—Mint operations since 1793 ....i. 373
United States—Iron interests........i. 397
United States Public Lands ....i. 441
United States Fisheries.............i. 463
United States Post System ....ii. 361
United States Rail-Road System ....ii. 478
United States—Mortality by census of 1850 ....iii. 428
United States Tariff...............iii. 445
United States Sugar Trade.........iii. 288
United States Tobacco Commerce...iii. 349
United States—Progress of the Republic—Growth of States and Population..iii. 367
United States—Early and Growing Commerce of.........................iii. 378
United States—Commerce and Navigation—Progress of from 1790...........iii. 386
United States—Population, Debt, Loans, Revenues, Etc., since 1790.......iii. 391
United States — Centre of it Moving West..........................iii. 393
United States—Territorial Extent of.iii. 393
United States — Sea and River Shore Line...........................iii. 395
United States—Immigration into....iii. 395
United States—Operation of the Laws of Population in Europe and U. S...iii. 400
United States Provision Trade......ii. 558
United States Emigration..........iii. 555
United States—Exports and Imports since 1790 ....iii. 378
United States Expenditures at the North and South ....iii. 97
United States Popular vote.........ii. 508
United States census, 1850.........iii. 573
United States Navy, 1852...........iii. 573
United States Religious statistics...iii. 574
United States, Population and Representation ....iii. 574
United States Currency ....iii. 575
United States Steamers ....iii. 577
United States Manufactures, 1850...iii. 577
United States shipping and tonnage.iii. 579
United States com'l statistics...iii. 577, 584
Upland Rice........................ii. 426
Uruguay ....i. 38

Valleys of North America...........i. 2
Valley of the Mississippi...........ii. 21
Venezuela ....i. 34
Vessels built in United States.......ii. 196
Virginia—Internal Improvements ...iii. 458
Vine Culture for United States......i. 81
Vital Statistics of Mass. ....ii. 71
Vital Statistics of Mobile...........ii. 79
Vital Statistics of New-Orleans..ii. 141, 148
Vital Statistics of South...........iii. 85

Wheat Crop of United States........i. 78
Whale Fishery.....................i. 315
Whitney's Rail-Road..........ii. 493, 499
White Labor unsuited to the South..iii. 61
Washington Navy Yard.............ii. 191
West Indies—British...............i. 108
West Indies—Sugar trade, &c......iii. 307
West Indies—Emancipation of slaves.iii. 38
Western Rivers—Loss of life on....iii. 154
Western Statistics.................iii. 512
Wine Manufacture at the South.....iii. 476
Wisconsin........................iii. 497
Western Manufactures.....ii. 108; iii. 469
Western Trade of New-Orleans.....ii. 147
Western Steamers, insecurity of... ii. 456 iii. 510.
Western Pork trade................i. 375
Western River commerce...........i. 445
Western Navigation................i. 449
Western Canals ....i. 450
Western Population..ii. 1, 558; iii. 499,
West—Efforts for disunion......i. 400, 425
Wreckers of Florida ....i. 407

Yazoo Land Claims.................i. 50
Yellow Fever in Charleston ....i. 248

Zoll-Verein ....i. 325

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ART. I.—THE ARCTIC REGIONS AND SIR JOHN FRANKLIN.*

It is now more than three and a half centuries since the first efforts were made to discover a north-west passage to India. These efforts have been renewed by various European nations; but the English were the first to engage in them, and have ever been the most ardent and persevering. While others have long since completely abandoned the idea of a north-west passage to India, through Behring's Straits, the English have never given it up. In spite of the immense sums that they have lost in repeated expeditions to the north-west, the many valuable lives that have been sacrificed, and the disasters of more than three hundred years, still we have seen them, in 1845, again renewing their efforts by sending another costly expedition under Sir John Franklin.

We cannot but express our high admiration of the energy and perseverance with which the English have redoubled, from time to time, their exertions to make out the long-wished-for passage; though at the same time, we must say, that we have ever been skeptical in regard to the practical utility of such a north-west passage to India, should it ever be discovered. The extreme high latitude in which it will be found, if found at all, will render it quite unavailable for commercial, and still more so for traveling purposes. Such a passage would not be open for navigation more than two months in a year; and, judging from all past experience of navigators in those seas, the imminent dangers of a voyage by that route would prevent any attempts to make it a medium for commerce. What good, then, is to result to the world from the discovery of a north-west passage to India?

These Arctic expeditions, it is true, have enriched science by the contribution of many curious and valuable facts and discoveries, and have well nigh solved the greatest geographical problem of the age; but this is all that can be said of them.

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* Arctic Searching Expedition.—A Journal of a Boat Voyage through Rupert's Land and the Arctic Sea, in search of the Discovery Ships, under the command of Sir John Franklin. By Sir John Richardson, C. B., F. R. S., &c. Harper & Brothers. 1852.

Seven years have now elapsed since Sir John Franklin, the commander of the last expedition to discover the supposed north-west passage, left England with two small ships, the *Erebus* and *Terror*. The expedition sailed from England on the 19th of May, 1845, and early in the July following it reached the Whalefish Islands, near Disco, on the western coast of Greenland. From this point Sir John Franklin, and others of the expedition, sent letters to England, which are the last that have been received from them. Several expeditions have been sent out in search of Sir John Franklin, but all in vain. In 1848, the British government fitted out a triple expedition to explore the Arctic regions in three directions. One under Sir James C. Ross, with two ships, was to proceed to Barrow's Straits, and search in that direction; another was to enter the Arctic seas through Behring's Straits, and explore eastward; while a third, under Sir John Richardson, was to proceed over land to the mouth of Mackenzie's River, and explore the whole coast from the mouth of that river eastward. The results of this last expedition are embodied in the work, whose title we have given on the first page of this paper.

Sir John Richardson left England on the 25th of March, 1848, having sent out his stores, boats, &c., for the journey, in ships bound for Hudson's Bay. These arrived at the mouth of Nelson's River, their place of destination, on the 8th of September, 1847, and the stores, &c., were conveyed to Cumberland House, the place of rendezvous of the expedition, on the Saskatchewan River, there to await the arrival of Sir John Richardson, who was to leave England in the following spring. The boats in which he was to descend Mackenzie's River to the Arctic Ocean, and survey the coast eastward, were four in number, built in England, and capable of carrying eight men each, and a cargo of two tons.

Sir John Richardson arrived in New-York on the 10th of April, 1848, and immediately proceeded for Cumberland House, his place of rendezvous, by the way of Montreal, the river St. Lawrence, and the lakes. He arrived at Fort William, on the western shore of Lake Superior, on the 12th of May, and at Cumberland House on the 13th of June, after suffering much delay on account of the ice in Lake Winipeg. Cumberland House is 2,880 miles from New-York.

At Cumberland House he learned that Mr. Bell, who had charge of the boats and stores destined for the mouth of the Mackenzie's River, had left a fortnight before, with all the boats, for the Arctic Ocean. Sir John Richardson, therefore, had nothing to do but to follow him, which he did the next day, the 14th of June, in canoes, his company of Canadian voyageurs consisting of fifteen persons. The route lay along the chain of small rivers and lakes which stretches from Lake Superior to the great Methy Portage, in lat. 56° 36′ N., and long. 109° 51′ W. This portage is the dividing ridge which separates the waters that flow to the N. E. into Hudson's Bay from those flowing N. W. into Mackenzie's River, and thence into the Arctic Ocean. The journey from Cumberland House, at Lake Winipeg, to the Methy Portage, in canoes, is tedious, the rivers being shallow and the portages frequent, though not long. At each portage, the canoes and baggage are carried across to the next water on the shoulders of men.

At Methy Portage Sir John Richardson overtook Mr. Bell with his four boats, after a fourteen days' journey from Cumberland House. The country along the route is hilly. In the eastern part of the route the prevailing rock is limestone, (silurian,) with frequent granite boulders. As they advanced, they found granite, gneiss, chlorite slate, like that on the north side of Lake Superior, and a hornblende slate occupying the beds of the rivers, and rising on each bank into rounded knolls and low cliffs. Granite was found on all the portages, with greenstone, hornblende, and, in some places, black basalt. At the three portages of Woody Lake, a micaceous gneiss, or mica-slate rock, prevails. As they approached the Great Methy Portage, lofty granite precipices, 150 feet high, were common, and the general aspect of the country became like that of the north shore of Lake Superior. A few miles on each side of the route the country rose into eminences four or five hundred feet above the streams. The islands in some of the lakes consisted of conical heaps of granite boulders.

Methy Portage extends from Methy Lake to the Clear Water River, a branch of the Athabosca. The length of the portage is 10.7 miles. There being no horses, the four boats and their cargoes were taken over this long distance on the backs of the men, the whole route being divided into nine stages. The portage is nearly level, and the uppermost stratum is alluvial sand lying upon sandstone, which in its turn rests on limestone, which forms the entire bed of the Clear Water River. The portage is about 900 feet above the level of the sea. Nine days were consumed in transporting the boats and stores across it.

On the 6th of July the party embarked on the Clear Water River, the valley of which " is not excelled, or, indeed, equaled by anything," says Sir John Richardson, " that I have seen in America for beauty." The banks are of limestone, and on the portage, about ten miles below the Methy, and " on the neighboring islands and flats, the limestone stands up in mural precipices and thin partitions, like the walls of a ruined city; and the beholder cannot help believing that the rock once formed a barrier at this strait, when the upper part of the river must have been one long lake."

The whole tract of country, between the Clear Water River and Athabosca Lake, is said to be a wooded, sandy plain, abounding in bison and other game.

On the 7th of July the party passed three portages. The weather was extremely hot, and mosquitoes very annoying, notwithstanding that they were in about lat. 56° N. The mosquito is an inhabitant of all climes, for it has been found in all countries. M. Erman found it in Northern Siberia, at Obdorsk, near the polar circle. On the same day the party gathered ripe strawberries on the banks of the Clear Water, also dwarf cherries, and a species of cranberry.

Two of the boats having been broken at the last portage, they were detained to repair them. On the 9th, the party entered the Elk, or Athabosca River, "a majestic stream, between a quarter and half a mile wide, with a considerable current, but without rapids."* Limestone strata, covered by a thick deposit of bituminous shale, form the banks of the Athabosca for 36 miles downward from the Clear Water to the site of Beren's Foot, now abandoned. The cliffs are shelving, and in many places 150 feet high. About 30 miles below the mouth of the Clear Water, the limestone strata were found covered by a bituminous deposit upwards of 100 feet thick. This deposit disappears in the neighborhood of Beren's House. Farther down, about three miles below Red River, where there was once a trading establishment called *La vieux Fort de la Rivière Rouge*, is a copious spring of mineral pitch issuing from a crevice in a cliff composed of sand and bitumen. It is a few hundred yards back from the river, in a thick wood. Several small birds were found, by Sir John Richardson, suffocated in the pitch.

The whole country along the river, as the party descended, exhibited bituminous cliffs, lying above a cream-colored and white limestone. The lower layers of the bituminous strata were so full of bitumen as to soften in the hand, while the upper layers were hard with iron. "The whole country for many miles is so full of bitumen that it flows readily into a pit dug a few feet below the surface." The limestone does not alternate with the bituminous beds, but in many places is itself highly bituminous, and contains shells filled with bitumen.

The Athabosca rises in the Rocky Mountains, in lat. 47½° N. It flows at the rate of about six miles an hour below the Clear Water River. Its source at the foot of Mount Brown is about 8,000 feet above the level of the sea. It flows through prairie lands abounding in moose-deer. All the tributaries flow at the bottom of deep ravines.

On the 10th of July the party arrived at the head of the delta which the Athabosca forms on entering the Athabosca Lake. The river here divides into four or five branches. On the morning of the 11th they entered the lake, and after firing a salute to a squadron of Mackenzie River boats, just in from the north, they proceeded to Fort Chepewyan, a little to the east of the mouth of the river. This fort is in lat. 58° 42′ N., and long. 111° 18′ W. Lake Athabosca is 200 miles long and about 15 miles wide. Its north shore is very high, whence it is sometimes called the Lake of the Hills. It is about 600 feet above the level of the sea. The country about Fort Chepewyan is composed of rounded knolls of granite, nearly destitute of soil. The north shores of the lake, and also the numerous islands of the west end, are of granite. It is a curious fact that Lake Wollaston, a little to the south-east of Athabosca, discharges its waters by two outlets, one of which flows into Lake Athabosca and the other into

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* Arctic Exp., p. 80. Idem p. 83.

Hudson's Bay, the waters thus flowing in opposite directions, and proving Lake Wollaston to be on the dividing ridge. The great Peace River, also, which rises west of and flows through the Rocky Mountains into Slave River, the outlet of, Lake Athabosca, discharges its waters in two directions, a part flowing into the Athabosca Lake and a part north along Slave River. These are not very common phenomena in hydrography. Plumbago, of an excellent quality, is found on the shores of Lake Athabosca.

The whole country west of Lake Athabosca, through which the Peace River flows, is "much of the character of a plain country," having a gradual and regular ascent westward. The bed of the Peace River, at the distance of 250 miles from its mouth, is 600 feet below the level of the country, which has no appearance of being elevated. No mountains or hills are to be seen. The bed of the river, however, in that distance, has risen 300 feet. The elevation of the country is about 1,600 feet above the sea, 300 miles west of the Athabosca Lake; and the gap in the Rocky Mountains, through which the Peace River passes, is about 6,000 feet above the sea.

On the 13th of July they proceeded on their journey down Slave River, and arrived at the Great Slave Lake in four days. Granite is the prevailing rock on this river, and spruce, pine, birch and poplar are the chief trees of the forest. The undergrowth consists of willow, dwarf birch, alders, roses, brambles, gooseberries, white cornel and mooseberry. The oaks, elms, ash, pitch pine and balsam fir that had prevailed between Lake Superior and the Athabosca Lake, had disappeared. The current of the Slave River is not very rapid, but it is full of islands, rapids and cascades, formed by ledges of granite extending across the river. The islands are all well wooded and picturesque. The portages are frequent, but short. The river is, in some places, from one to two miles wide. Some of the cascades are 20 feet in perpendicular height.

The travelers were much annoyed, while descending the Slave River, by the heat of the sun and mosquitoes and other formidable insects. "The power of the sun on the 14th of July," says Sir John Richardson, "was so great, in a cloudless sky, that I was glad to take shelter in the water while the crews were engaged" in carrying the boats over the portages. He adds: "I have never felt the sun's direct rays so oppressive within the tropics as I have experienced them to be on some occasions in the high latitudes." Bathing in the Slave River was found to be a luxury almost out of the question, owing to the immense swarms of mosquitoes; and what was still *worse*, a most blood-thirsty insect, the *tabanus*, a large fly that draws blood at every bite, was also on hand, to complete the work which the mosquitoes were unable to finish. But this is not all; "leeches," says Sir John Richardson, "also infest the still waters, and are prompt in their aggressions."

The Slave River enters the Great Slave Lake through a delta of low, well-wooded, alluvial islands, by many channels, having a spread of more than 20 miles. At the mouth of the most eastern branch is Stony Island, a naked mass of granite, rising fifty or sixty feet above the water; and beyond that, to the eastward, the banks of the lake are wholly primitive. West of the Slave River, to the Mackenzie, the southern shore is limestone, associated with bituminous shale.

They reached Fort Resolution, on the south shore, on the 17th of July, where they stayed only one hour, glad to get rid of the dense swarms of mosquitoes on shore by betaking themselves to the boats with a good breeze on the lake. According to the accounts of Sir John Richardson, the mosquitoes of the Great Slave Lake, in latitude 62° N., are more numerous and annoying than we have ever found them either in Louisiana or Texas. They sailed along the southern shore of the lake, which they found generally low, flat, and shelving, with few safe landing-places for boats. Swamps extend back from the lake, and in many places vast quantities of drift-wood are piled upon the shore. The Great Slave Lake is 300 miles long and about 50 wide.

On the 22d of July the party arrived at Fort Simpson, on the Mackenzie River, west of the lake, in lat. 61° 51′ N., and long. 121° 51′ W. The bank of the Mackenzie at this place is steep, and about 30 feet high, composed of sand and loam. The beach was lined with boulders of granite, greenstone, limestone and sandstone. The Mackenzie River runs in a channel scooped out of the upper silurian strata, and still never deposits. Neither granite, gneiss, nor mica-slate are seen on its banks, and even trap-rocks are rare, if any actually occur.*

At Fort Simpson, barley, oats and potatoes thrive, but wheat does not ripen. Barley is sown about the 20th of May and is ripe on the 20th of August. The ground freezes there to the depth of 16 feet. The meadows of the Mackenzie afford an abundance of good hay.

The Liards River, which rises west of the Rocky Mountains, and flows through them, empties into the Mackenzie at Fort Simpson. It is by way of this river that communication is carried on between the Great Slave Lake and the Pacific.

A short distance below the fort the river comes in contact with spurs of the Rocky Mountains. Several large streams flow into the Mackenzie below the fort. At the Bear Lake River, which flows from the lake of that name into the Mackenzie, there is a tertiary coal formation. If exposed to the action of moist air in mass, it takes fire spontaneously, burning with a fetid smell, and with but little smoke or flame. The coal beds are thus consumed as fast as they are exposed, and the bank is constantly tumbling down into the river. The beds were on fire in 1785, when discovered by Alexander Mackenzie, and they are still burning. From one to four beds of coal are exposed above the water level on the banks of the river, the thickest of which exceeds three yards. Pipe clay is also abundant on the banks of the river. The Indians eat it in times of scarcity. There are coal beds on fire on the Peace River, and on its branch, the Smoking River, near the base of the Rocky Mountains, from 1,800 to 2,000 feet above the sea.

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* Arctic Exp., p. 365.

The chief tree in these regions is the white spruce. It attains a girth of four or five feet, and a height of from 60 to 120 feet. Flowers are abundant, though almost on the polar circle. The American robin, the thrush, the swallow, blue-bird, and others of the feathery tribe, are common on the banks of the Mackenzie. Ducks, gulls, geese and frogs, abound in the lakes. The latter make the marshes vocal about the beginning of June. Frogs are found quite within the polar circle; snakes as far north as 56°, and the tortoise at the 51st degree of north latitude. Mr. Murray says, he found snakes within the polar circle, on the Yukon River.

As the party drew near to the mouth of the river, they found the banks, in some places, 300 feet high, and indications of its rising sometimes to the height of 40 feet. It passes through spurs of the Rocky Mountains, near its mouth, and the passage through is reduced to only a few hundred yards, causing the current to flow somewhat rapidly, though not too rapid for steamboats, which might ascend the river to the portage in Slave River, between Great Slave Lake and Lake Athabosca, a distance of near 1,300 miles. The Mackenzie forms a delta at its mouth, the head of which, where the river divides into two branches, is called Point Separation. It is in latitude 67° 49′ N. At this place the river is a mile and a half wide. Sir John Richardson arrived at this point on the 31st of July, 1848. Vegetation, at this point, preserves the same general character as higher up the river. The willow grows to the height of 20 feet.

At Point Separation, in compliance with his instructions, he buried, in a pit, on the bank of the river, a case of pemmican, together with a bottle containing a memorandum of the objects of the expedition. These were for those belonging to the party who were sent out under Sir James Ross, to search for Sir John Franklin, in case they should arrive at the Mackenzie River. Sir James Ross, simultaneously with Sir John Richardson, as we have before stated, was sent to Lancaster Sound, with directions to penetrate westward in search of the lost discovery ships; and in case they made their way as far as the shores of the Arctic, east of the Mackenzie, they were there to find supplies of pemmican* deposited by Sir John Richardson. A mark painted on the trunk of a tree indicated the spot where the pemmican was buried.

Most of the islands formed in the delta of the river by the ramifications of the stream are alluvial; and some of them are mud and sand banks covered with willows. These mud islands generally inclose ponds or marshes filled with drift timber. The larger islands are dry and have a firm soil, but are low, except near the sea, where they rise into conical hummocks from 80 to 90 feet high. A spur of the Rocky Mountains skirts the western channel of the river to the sea. The general elevation of these spurs is upwards of 1,000 feet. The foot of the mountains is about four miles from the bank of the river, after traveling over a low marshy alluvial plain covered with willows. The main ridge of the spur is 40 miles west of the river.

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* Pemmican is a food made of dried pulverized beef, mixed with lard or suet, and sweetened with sugar or currants.

The eastern arm of the river is also flanked by a ridge of one of the spurs through which the river passes a short distance above the delta. These mountains are about 800 feet high. The party proceeded down the eastern arm, and found the banks and islands well wooded. The balsam poplar rises there, within the polar circle, to the height of twenty feet, and the white spruce to forty or fifty. The sand marten, a bird well known in Louisiana, was found burrowing in the banks of the Mackenzie. They leave the polar circle in September, for the south, the insects being then destroyed at the north by the frosts.

On the 2d of August the party passed sand hills, covered with large boulders, and almost entirely destitute of vegetation. This was in lat. 68° 50′ N., where vegetation almost entirely disappears. Farther on, they came to Sacred Island, in lat. 69° 4′ N., where the common red currant was found growing.

On the 3d of August they entered the estuary of the Mackenzie. Here they encountered 200 Esquimaux in their boats, who, after some trading with Sir John Richardson's party, attempted to plunder one of the boats that was behind. The timely approach of the boats ahead dispersed the Indians, and nothing was taken of much value.

All inquiries made to obtain of the natives information of the discovery ships were fruitless. The Indians of the Mackenzie Valley, and the shores of the Arctic Ocean, particularly the Esquimaux and Dog-rib, or Hare Indians, are extremely vicious. They do not feel the least shame in being detected in falsehood, and invariably practice it, if they think anything can be gained thereby. They are not more truthful among themselves than with strangers. They will rob and murder when a profitable opportunity occurs.

The course of the expedition now lay eastward. The first day, after leaving the mouth of the Mackenzie, they arrived at Copland Hutchinson Inlet, in lat. 69° 44′ N. Here the variation of the needle was 58° E. The coast was low and flat, with conical eminences of no great height, at intervals of seven or eight miles. These eminences were supposed to be sand made by the washing of high tides, while the lands were inundated by the sea. The surf breaks high upon the shelving flats, which are covered, to the depth of four or five feet, with a moorish or peaty soil, which is much cracked, and in many places soft and boggy. Marshes and small lakes abound, filled with geese and ducks. The whole coast is often inundated by the sea, as is proved by the drift-wood and water-marks on the conical sand hills ten feet above their bases. The highest tides on this whole coast do not rise above three feet, and commonly only about twenty inches.

The expedition arrived at Cape Bathurst on the 11th of August, where they had been instructed to deposit pemmican, and erect a signal post. In crossing Liverpool Bay, and at all places where they landed, they were much annoyed by the Esquimaux. The surface of the country about Cape Bathurst is level, or gently undulating, and the sea cliffs are in many places nearly precipitous, and about 150 feet high. The strata, where exposed, were found to be sand and clay Proceeding south-east from Cape Bathurst, the shores rise to the height of 250 feet, and beds of bituminous shale are seen. The high banks of Cape Bathurst continue to the bottom of Franklin Bay, where the shores again become flat. The expedition always kept near the shore, and landed to cook and eat their meals. Large numbers of white and black whales were seen at sea, and reindeer and Esquimaux on the shore. On the 13th they arrived at Cape Parry, which rises 500 feet high. Islands are numerous along this coast. The cliffs on the points of land presented limestone, columnar basalt, and greenstone slate. At Point Keats, east of Cape Parry, are magnificent columns of basalt, and the cliffs are of flesh-colored limestone. Sandstone boulders cover the shores, which are in general but little elevated above the water.

On the 29th of August Sir John Richardson arrived at Cape Krusenstern, the same geological features continuing to present themselves. Here their progress was hindered by ice; and on the night of the next day, while endeavoring to reach the mouth of the Coppermine River, they were completely involved in drift ice, and could not land. The shores were low, and the country flat and swampy. Finding it impossible to advance with the boats, the party landed on the 1st of September, and walked along the shore, leaving two men in each boat to take care of them. They formed an encampment, and resolved to wait two days for the sea to become clear; at the end of which time, there being no prospect of the boats being able to proceed, it was resolved to leave them, and make their way with the stores, &c., by land to the Coppermine River. On Sunday morning, at six o'clock, on the 3d of September, they commenced their march after reading prayers, each man having a load of from sixty to seventy pounds. The boats and tents left behind were very soon after taken by the Esquimaux.

On the 5th of September the party reached the Coppermine, after crossing Rae River and Richardson's River, not laid down on the maps. The mouth of the latter is in lat. 67° 53′ N., and long. 115° 56′ W. They proceeded up the Coppermine, through a low, well-wooded country, to its western branch, the River Kendall. Crossing this, they left the Coppermine, and directed their course south-west towards Great Bear Lake. The route was full of lakes and swamps, and the snow deep. There was no timber, except on the rivers. On leaving the Coppermine, the country became high and composed of granite, though not mountainous. On the 15th, they arrived at a branch of the Dease River, which runs into the Great Bear Lake, and, taking boats, they arrived at Fort Confidence on the evening of the same day. Here he found comfortable winter quarters; and writing his dispatches to the Admiralty, and his private letters, Sir John Richardson sent them, with eighteen of his party, up the Mackenzie.

Sir John Richardson gives an elaborate description of the manners and customs of the Esquimaux and other Indians, who are found in the northern parts of North America; but we find but little in it that has not already been given to the public. The Esquimaux are not a red race, but approach nearly to white; and, as to stature, are certainly not the stunted race which popular opinion supposes them to be. "Some of them," says Sir John Richardson, "would be considered to be both tall and stout, even among Europeans." They are emphatically a littoral people, neither wandering inland nor crossing wide seas. They range along the entire vast extent of sea coast from the Straits of Belleisle to Behring's Straits; also, on both sides of Greenland. They are also found on the Asiatic side of Behring's Straits. In addition to what we have stated above regarding their morals, the following extract, which we have hesitated about giving, on account of its indelicacy, will convey a very unfavorable impression as to their notions of decency and hospitality. The casuist and enlightened Christian moralist will note it as a striking example of the shape the moral sense may assume in the absence of the purifying and elevating influences of Christianity.

> "Egede informs us that the unmarried Greenland women are modest, both in words and deeds, but that greater laxity exists among the wives, with the connivance of their husbands, who are not jealous. I fear that so much, scanty as the praise is, cannot be justly said in favor of the fair sex on the northern coast. The gestures and signs made by young and old, when they came off in the *umiaks*, (boats,) were most indelicate, and more than once a wife was proffered by her husband, without circumlocution, in the presence of his companions and of the woman herself. I understood, indeed, from Augustus, (our interpreter in 1826,) that such an offer was considered by the nation as an act of generous hospitality; and similar customs are said to exist among the inhabitants of Tartary."*

M. Erman, in his Travels in Siberia, says: "that the same custom prevails among the Tchuktchi, who live on the shores of the polar ocean, west of Behring's Straits. These people are, in fact, of the race of the Esquimaux. The Esquimaux, like the inhabitants of North Siberia, eat raw flesh." For a full account of the Indian tribes of British North America, we refer the reader to the 12th, 13th, and 14th chapters of Sir John Richardson's work.

Fort Confidence, where Sir John Richardson passed the winter of 1848–'49, is on Dease River, three miles from its entrance into the Great Bear Lake, in lat. 66° 54′ N., and long. 118° 49′ W. Though called a fort, it is only a collection of log-houses, without any fortifications. During the winter he recorded thermometrical, barometrical, and magnetic observations, hourly, sixteen or seventeen times a day. Once a month a term day was kept, of thirty-six hours, in which the fluctuations of the magnets were noted every 2½ minutes, and various series of observations were made for ascertaining the magnetic intensity with the magnetometer, the vibration apparatus, and Lloyd's dipping-needle. A register of the winds, weather, and appearances of the *aurora borealis*, was constantly kept, and the time and rates of the chronometers were ascertained by observations of the fixed stars. These observations have been reduced and published.

The party at Fort Confidence passed a pleasant winter, being provided with every thing necessary to make them comfortable. They had a great abundance of the finest fish, venison, reindeer tongues, dried meat, barley meal, flour, sugar, tea, potatoes, pemmican, Zante currants, and large supplies of cranberries, blaeberries, and the fruit of the amelanchier, which afforded them tarts and pies all the winter.

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* Sir John Richardson's Arctic Exp. in 1848, p. 211.

The extreme dryness of the atmosphere, during the coldest parts of the winter, was somewhat remarkable. When the thermometer of Fahrenheit stood at 40° or 50° below zero, a piece of clothing just washed and hung out froze instantly so as to be brittle like glass; but in an hour or two, in the absence of the sun, it was found to be quite dry and flexible. In consequence of the extreme dryness of the atmosphere in winter, most articles of English manufacture made of wood, horn, or ivory, are shriveled, bent, and broken. The handles of razors and knives, combs, ivory scales, and various other things kept in the warm rooms, were damaged in the same way, and from the same cause. The human body also became visibly electric from the dryness of the skin. "One cold night," says Sir John Richardson, "I rose from my bed, and having lighted a lantern, was going out to observe the thermometer, with no other clothing than my flannel night-dress, when, on approaching my hand to the iron latch of the door, a distinct spark was elicited. Friction of the skin, at almost all times in winter, produced the electric odor."

On the 17th and 18th of December, the average temperature for forty-eight hours was 55½° below zero of Fahrenheit. At seven o'clock, P. M., on the 17th, the thermometer stood at 58.9° below 0, of F. The lowest temperature observed was 65° F. This is one of the greatest colds on record. Mr. Saunders records 64½° F. as the lowest temperature observed in Wolstenholme Sound, in the winter of 1850.

On the 1st of December, at Fort Confidence, the sun was just visible for an instant at noon, from an eminence behind the fort. From the 19th to the 29th of December, the sun did not get at all above the horizon. The sky was clear, and the sun's place below the horizon was denoted by rays of light shooting into the sky above the woods. On the first of February the sun rose at nine o'clock, and set at three, P. M., and the days lengthened rapidly. The moon in the long nights was a most beautiful object, it being constantly above the horizon for nearly a fortnight together, in the middle of the lunar month. The planet Venus also shone with a brilliancy unknown in southern latitudes, and the aurora borealis was always visible. On the 20th of April the days had become so long, that there was daylight enough at nine o'clock, P. M., to read by. On the 27th of April the birds began to return from the south.

On the 7th of May, Mr. Richardson left Fort Confidence for the south, on his way home. Before leaving, he organized an expedition under the command of Mr. John Rae, to whom he gave instructions to descend the Coppermine River, and explore, if possible, the shores of Wollaston and Victoria Lands, in search of Sir John Franklin. Mr. Rae proceeded on the 9th of May, 1849, across the portage, between Dease and Kendall rivers, and down the latter to its entrance into the Coppermine, and thence to the Arctic Sea. He found it quite impossible, on account of the ice, to make the exploration required, and returned to Fort Confidence on the first of September, 1849.

Mr. Richardson's route homeward was across the Great Bear Lake, on the ice, and down the Bear Lake River to the Mackenzie. The rest of his homeward route was the same as before described. He arrived at Liverpool on the 6th of November, 1849, after being absent 19 months, and without accomplishing his objects.

Nor were the two other expeditions sent out at the same time more successful. That under Capt. Ross, after exploring the north shore of Barrow's Straits as far west as Cape Hurd, and also Prince Regent's Inlet entirely, and part of the Gulf of Boothia, and also the western shore of North Somerset as far south as 72° 38′ N., by traveling on foot, at length left for England on the 25th of September, 1849. The expedition sent to Behring's Straits advanced in boats as far east as the Mackenzie, but could get no further on account of the ice.

On Capt. Ross's return to England, in 1849, his two ships, the Enterprise and Investigator, were again sent out to make another attempt by the way of Behring's Straits. The latter vessel passed the straits, and was last seen on the 4th of August, 1850. The Enterprise, unable to penetrate the ice, went back and wintered at Hong Kong, and was to renew the attempt in 1851. The Admiralty also sent out, at the same time, six vessels to Lancaster Sound. Private expeditions also went out at the same time. Capt. Sir John Ross sailed in the schooner Felix; Mr. Henry Grinnell, a merchant of New-York, sent out two vessels, under the command of Lieut. De Haven, U. S. N., and Mr. S. P. Griffin; Lady Franklin, also, dispatched the Prince Albert, under the command of Mr. Forsyth, R. N. Some of these parties have returned. All the accessible parts of the continental coast of America have been explored, and both sides of Barrow's Straits to the farther side of Melville Island, and the land beyond Cape Walker. The only trace that has been found of Sir John Franklin was by Capt. Penny, in 1850, on Beechy Island, on the north side of Barrow's Straits. Here were found several hundred empty meat-tins and other remains, showing that Franklin's ships wintered on that island in the winter of 1845–6. The graves of two men were found, the latest date of which was April 3, 1846. No trace later than this has been found of Sir John Franklin, who left England on the 19th of May, 1845, seven years ago. Expeditions are still out, and all news from the Arctic regions is received eagerly.

It is much to be regretted, that the American publishers of Sir John Richardson's Arctic Expedition have not accompanied it with a map of the Arctic regions. Scarcely any of the places visited are to be found on ordinary maps. This is a serious defect, which detracts greatly from the value of the work. The same may be said of M. Erman's Travels in Siberia, recently published at New-York.

ART. II.—SOUTHERN POPULATION—ITS DESTINY.

A short article in one of the late numbers of the Review, on the "Excess of Negro Population at the South," has induced us to look into the subject, with a view of elucidating as much as possible the vexed question: "What effect will *time*, alone and of itself, produce upon the *relative* increase of population in the negro and white races of the southern states, *should their limits never be extended?*"

The prevailing opinion is, that in the course of not a very long time, the negro race will become too populous to be advantageously employed as slaves; our institutions will therefore languish, and a contest of some sort spring up between that and the white race. To test this opinion, let us first inquire how long it will be before this redundancy will probably ensue? Down to 1840, the negroes and whites of the slave states have increased at pretty much the same rate, viz: three per cent. per annum, or thereabouts. From 1840 to '50, however, a variation appears. The whites increased 34 per cent. in ten years; the slaves 28 per cent., and the free negroes less than 9; so that the whole negro population increased at the rate of 26 per cent. in ten years. This shows an advantage of about *eight* per cent. in favor of the whites. Let us then proceed, first, upon the supposition that the two races will increase henceforth at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum each; then, upon the supposition that they will continue the rates which are manifested by the census of 1850. In the first case, each race will double itself in thirty-three years; in the second the whites will double in about thirty years, while the negroes will double in about forty. What will be the number of the southern population one hundred years hence under these several suppositions?

The present population is 6,207,466 whites, and 3,411,760 negroes. In 1950, then, under the first supposition, it will be 49,659,728 whites, and 27,294,080 negroes. But under the second supposition, it will be 66,212,970 whites and 20,470,560 negroes. The aggregate will be, either 76,953,808, or 86,683,530.

With this population, what will be the number of inhabitants per square mile?

The territory comprised by the slave states amounts, in round numbers, to 900,000 square miles, or 576,000,000 acres. The proportion under the first supposition would, therefore, be about 85 inhabitants to each square mile, or *one* to every seven and a half acres; and under the second supposition, about 96 to each mile, or one to every six and two thirds acres.

How does this prospective density compare with that of other countries at the present day?

The English population numbers 240 per mile; the French, 154; and the Italian some 70 odd. In Massachusetts the density is 127 per mile; in New-York, 67; and in Maryland, 62. According to McCulloch the whole of Europe, with her immense regions of *frozen* and worthless territory, contains 3,708,871 square miles; and by the "Almanach de Gotha" for 1849, it appears that the population numbers 242,093,357, making an average of over 65 per mile.

From these considerations it appears that one hundred years hence, if the southern population continues to increase till then at its past or present rate, the density will be little over a third of that of England, half that of France, and about forty less than Massachusetts. The two leading questions then recur: First—Will this tremendous increase be the work of a single century? Second—If so, will it amount to redundancy?

No population can increase without a corresponding increase in the production of agriculture. "Subsistence is the parent of future, and the support of present population." Economists have established, that the instinct which prompts man to multiply his species is what may be termed, in the language of mathematicians, "*a constant quantity*," differing essentially from the capacity of acquiring subsistence, which is a *variable* quantity. It appears, therefore, that "an increase of the means of subsistence is the only sure criterion of a permanent and beneficial increase of population." To answer the first question, then, our readers must solve for themselves the problem—Can the slave states, in one hundred years, increase their agricultural produce sufficiently to support comfortably such a population? We believe *they can*, and for the following reasons: Immense quantities of land capable of profitable cultivation are to be found lying waste throughout the South, which are destined to be gradually reclaimed as the population increases. Great improvements are yet to be made in our system of agriculture, and improvements always increase the productive power of labor in any pursuit. An incalculable diversity of employments, and creation of new industrial pursuits, must accompany the growth of population; and the diversity of employments in a community, like the division of labor in a factory, increases the productive power of that community, and thus accumulates capital. So that since there will be thousands of miles more of the soil cultivated, vast improvements made in every art, and numerous advances in manufactures and commerce, it may reasonably be assumed that in one hundred years the southern population may number some eighty odd millions. Will this amount to redundancy?

Doubtless it can be shown how much of the soil there is under actual cultivation throughout the South. At present we can only speak of South Carolina; but what is said of her in this regard, may be said of the other states.*

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* We have made up the following table from the census of 1850, of the quantity of lands improved in a few of the states, and from other sources have given the area of these states:

	Acres Improved.	Total Acres.
Virginia	10,150,000	39,040,000
South Carolina	4,074,000	17,920,000
Alabama	4,387,088	37,120,000
Mississippi	3,489,640	21,520,000
Arkansas	780,333	32,000,000
Louisiana	1,567,998	21,000,000
Texas	635,913	250,000,000

South Carolina contains about 21,000,000 acres, of which but 1,500,000, or thereabouts, are cultivated. Can it be possible that only *one-twelfth* of this state is capable of profitable cultivation? Surely not. One-fourth at least, we should think, might be made to yield an abundant harvest. This would be about 4,500,000 acres, three times the amount now cultivated. What population could this support? We presume at least three times the present population; and probably much more, as we will endeavor to show.

In 1840 the population of the state was 594,398, of which 198,363, almost exactly one-third, was employed in agriculture. Now, if we suppose that three times as much soil would require three times as many people to cultivate it, 4,500,000 acres would require 595,089. But would not this great increase in agriculture be necessarily accompanied by a still *greater* increase of employment in other pursuits? It certainly would. Those states which have introduced manufactures, extended their commerce, and diversified employment generally, exhibit a much smaller proportion of their people employed in agriculture than South Carolina, and it is fairly to be supposed that as the South becomes more populous the proportion of agriculturists to the whole populace must decrease. Among the southern states, Maryland employs about one-seventh of her people in agriculture; Virginia, Louisiana and Missouri about one-fourth; and among the northern states, Massachusetts employs one-eighth, Pennsylvania one-seventh, Connecticut, New-Jersey and Ohio one-sixth, and New-York one-fifth. Now, when the southern population has increased so much as to have reclaimed nearly all the land which can be profitably cultivated, we take it for granted, the diversity of industrial pursuits will be as great *here* as it *now* is in Ohio, New-Jersey, New-York or Maryland; and assume that *one-fifth* of the people will be enough to cultivate the land for the sustenance of themselves and the other four-fifths. This assumption may not reasonably be objected to; for by the census of 1840, it appears that *then* only 1,982,671 out of 7,333,637, or very little more than one-fourth of the entire southern population, was employed in agriculture. If, then, 4,500,000 acres of land in South Carolina will require 595,089 people to cultivate them, and only one-fifth of the population of this state will be sufficient to produce subsistence for the whole, it follows that 2,975,445 people will be comfortably sustained; and this

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The following was published some years ago, but we cannot learn upon what authority:—

Maryland	20	per cent. under cultivation.
Virginia	40	" " " "
South Carolina	40	" " " "
Georgia	40	" " " "
Alabama	20	" " " "
Mississippi	50	" " " "
Tennessee	50	" " " "
Kentucky	40	" " " "
Texas	15	" " " "
Florida	15	" " " "
North Carolina	25	" " " "
Louisiana	60	" " " "
Arkansas	25	" " " "

[Eds.

would result in the proportion of about 90 inhabitants per mile throughout the state.

If the same may be conjectured of the whole South, it would appear that 144,000,000 acres, one-fourth of the South, would require 19,042,848 people to cultivate them; and the whole population being five times as much, would amount to 95,214,240, or 105 per square mile. But since this population will be comfortably supported, for we have supposed that subsistence will increase apace with capital, it cannot be urged that there will be a redundancy. Therefore, if the southern population continues for one hundred years to increase at its present rate, we need not apprehend redundancy.

What may be expected at the end of the succeeding hundred years, viz: the year of our Lord *two thousand and fifty?*

In the year 1700 the English population was about 100 per mile, considerably more than ours can be a hundred *years* hence; but in 1800 it had nearly doubled, and in 1850 it is stated to be 240 per mile. It is by no means likely that our population, when it approximates to the density of the English in 1700, will increase as rapidly; for England is the homestead of an immense empire, and may be regarded as a vast city, whose suburbans are supplying her from all the continents of earth. And as she, having a population of 100 per mile, and enjoying so many inducements to the increase of population within her immediate limits, could scarcely double it during the whole of the eighteenth century, and only increased it fifty per cent. during the last fifty years; it may be justly deduced that the southern people, after having reclaimed the great bulk of their arable land, and having reached a proportion of eighty or ninety inhabitants to every square mile, which we have supposed *might* be consummated in one hundred years, but which will *probably* take up two centuries or more, will settle down to a rate of increase, the only exponent of which will be the degree of improvement that may supervene, and which we have every right to maintain will be less than that of the English population. After comparing all things, and to come to an end of these conjectures, we think it may be laid down as a probability, that the southern population will not exceed, even if it reaches, the present density of the French, for two or three hundred years to come; and the ratio of population to territory in England is greater than will ever be witnessed as an average in these states.

But the chief apprehension seems to be, that the negro race will increase more rapidly than the whites. It is not the aggregate population which is particularly dreaded—it is the *relative* increase. However, besides the numbers laid down in the last census, there are many forcible reasons why it may be urged that this apprehension is groundless.

All impediments to the natural increase of population may be classified as *preventives* to propagation, or *checks* to growth—the first comprising all those causes which prevent the birth of living children, and the latter all those which produce death after birth. From all the data we have at command, it would seem to be placed beyond question, that there are comparatively more births in the negro than the white race, and this is conclusive proof that preventives to propagation are not so effectual in the former as the latter. But from the same sources it does appear the checks to growth are fewer and less effectual in the white race. If we divide life into three periods, as for instance, from birth to maturity, from maturity to the beginning of decline, and from then to death; or say, from birth to twenty, from twenty to forty-five, and from forty-five to death; it appears there is much more negro mortality during the first period than white, and more also during the first half of the second.

It is for those of the readers of the Review, more competent, to say whether this circumstance is of material consequence. To our mind it certainly does appear to be. When an infant is snatched from a community, it is like extinguishing a lamp which has been just filled and newly trimmed; but when the man who has reached a green old age is taken from the world, it is like the gentle going-out of a lamp at the approach of day, because it has consumed all of its "midnight oil," and its charred wick can no longer feed the unwilling flame. He is,

> "Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
> About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams."

Like the morning sun, as it

> "Checkers the eastern sky with streaks of life,"

and wakes up the world for another day, the young child brings with him in his little loins the germ of another generation; but like the setting of the pale wan moon down into the calm bosom of the deep, is the old man's death, who, having lived out his life, sinks down with placid brow into the grave.

It cannot, we imagine, be treating lightly of our fellow-mortals to say, that some of them, when they come to die, prove no check to the growth of population; or at least, their death is a less check than that of others. It may, therefore, with propriety be said, that the death of very aged people is the least of all checks to population; the death of young people who have not reached the age at which they may propagate their species is the greatest possible; and the death of those between these extremes vary between them in its effect.

It cannot be questioned that the great mass of mankind are born of parents who are between the ages of twenty and forty-five; it is certainly the case as far as *mothers* are concerned. When, therefore, those between these ages die, they may be supposed to have multiplied their species to a certain extent according to their individual ages, and their demise may be regarded as an *interruption* to the work which they had commenced. Their loss is, therefore, greater than those who have passed the propagating age, while it is less than those who have not yet reached it. And if further classification might be made, perhaps the following is quite correct:

1. The greatest check is the death of those under twenty.
2. The next greatest is that of single people over twenty, but under thirty.
3. " " married people within the fruitful age.
4. " " single people over thirty, but within the fruitful age.
5. " " all people who have passed the fruitful age.
6. The least of all " extremely aged people.

Now, if this classification is admissible, what will the statistics of the southern population exhibit when analyzed according to it?

The only very reliable census we have at hand, is that of Charleston, for the year 1848, which was compiled with great care and accuracy. It appears from this, that during the year there were:

White births, 3.27 to every 100 white inhabitants.
Negro do. 4.40 " negro inhabitants.
Negro excess, 1.13 per ct.

From 1841 to 1848—

White deaths under twenty were 32.55 pr. ct. of all white deaths.
Negro " " 49.74 " negro "
Negro excess, 17.19 per cent.

From 1822 to 1848—a period of twenty-six years—the mortality compared thus:

White deaths under twenty, 28.74 pr. ct. of all white deaths.
Negro " " 47.57 " negro "
Negro excess, 18.83 per cent.

From these figures it appears, if we take the births during the year 1848 as an average, that where one hundred negroes are born, about ninety-nine whites are, supposing the aggregate population of the two races to be the same; but for every hundred whites who die under twenty, one hundred and eighteen negroes die. To illustrate this, let us suppose a community composed of exactly the same number of whites and negroes, and that every year the same number of each race died; say that, twenty years ago, one thousand white children were born: that year there must have been one thousand and eleven negroes born; now if at the end of this, the twentieth year, we find that four hundred of these whites have died, how many of the negroes will have died? why, four hundred and seventy-two; so that out of one thousand whites, born twenty years ago, six hundred are now alive, and capable of increasing the race; but out of the thousand and eleven negroes only five hundred and thirty-nine remain.

We will not occupy any further space than to express the hope of seeing something from the pen of some of the correspondents of this Review, setting forth correct statistics on this subject, and giving the results of a more perfect and elaborate investigation than we feel authorized to venture upon now. We are quite satisfied that an error is abroad which is calculated to injure our institutions and our altars. The prevailing idea, that a contest of races is destined to spring up as southern population increases, can, we sincerely believe, be thoroughly set aside by facts and principles which only need to be duly considered and impartially applied. It is exceedingly doubtful whether there will ever be another acre of land added to the slave territory of this continent; it is questionable whether there is any need of more; but, be these as they may, it is clear the *destiny* of the slave states is in the hands of the *white race* of those states. If six millions of freemen, with wealth, power, and territory enough to establish a vast empire equal to one fourth of all Europe—

cultivating a soil the greater portion of which may be said just to have been reclaimed—having facilities for introducing every industrial pursuit which a growing people can need, and with the full knowledge that the civilized world is regarding them with an evil eye—cannot cease to complain of the blessings which nature is heaping upon them, and direct their energies towards their own improvement, and against the foul machinations of their enemies who are mortal as themselves, it is greatly to be feared they are not worthy of their wealth nor suited to their calling. If all the money which is spent in political conventions and caucuses, stump speeches and elections, controversies and office-hunting, which demoralize the southern mind, and is preparing it for lasting subjugation, was devoted to improvement at home, the encouragement of southern art and southern industry, the division of labor and the diversity of employment, we would be a more united people. If all the money which is spent in northern schools and colleges, cities and watering places, taverns and steamboats, as well as shops and factories, was kept at home for the building up of our own seminaries, our own literature, our own amusements and benefits, we would be a happier and a better people. Talk of redundancy! Why, in the palmiest days of Rome five acres of land was the actual allotment to every agricultural family, and in Flanders *now*, a farm of five acres is a comfortable homestead. Yet we have shown that when the southern population, which is about 10 per mile, becomes nine times as dense as it now is, each individual, white and black, will average over seven acres; or, at the very lowest calculation, twenty-one acres for a family of three. There is a public sentiment abroad in the land which we have to fear. Let the enlightened reader cast his eye over the civilized world—how many distinct parties does he not see, which abhor our institutions? But look at home—is there a single spot upon which that eye can rest, and contemplate a *southern party* which is not torn, lacerated, and bleeding from suicidal wounds?

ART. III.—SIBERIA.*

THERE is no part of the world, if we except, perhaps, Central Africa, so little known as Siberia. This is due, in a great measure at least, to its remoteness from the most civilized portions of the world, the extreme coldness of its climate, and its absolute or supposed want of novelties, of any kind, sufficiently attractive to draw the traveler within its borders. Some few have ventured thither, at wide intervals of time; and these, for the most part, have been men who have sought that remote and forbidden quarter of the globe as zealous, self-denying votaries of science, eager to solve some long-mooted scientific question, or to make some valuable contribution to our present stock of scientific information. Few, if any, of the numerous tribes of flying tourists, who are constantly skimming over every inviting portion of the globe, and writing books about their adventures, have ever dared to turn their thoughts on Siberia. The very thought of it is, indeed, enough to freeze one to death, or at least to chill one with horror; for the very name of Siberia, apart from its eternal snows and ice, has become a synonym for horrible cruelty and injustice. It is never pronounced without calling up in the mind pictures of the sufferings of the thousands of poor exiles who are now dragging out their miserable lives in the mines of that horrid country.

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* TRAVELS IN SIBERIA; including Excursions northwards down the Obi to the Polar Circle; and southwards to the Chinese Frontier. By ADOLPH ERMAN. Translated from the German by W. D. Cooley. 1850. 2 vols., pp. 800. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The latest, and probably the best scientific work that has appeared on the subject of Siberia, is that of M. ADOLPH ERMAN, which acquired for him the medal of the Royal Geographical Society of London. In conferring this medal, Sir Roderick Impey Murchison used the following language:

> "I have already said more than enough to convince any one who has not studied the works of M. Erman, that the council has most wisely selected him to be the receiver of our patron's medal; and there can, indeed, exist no doubt that, with the exception of the great Humboldt himself, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to find a single man in the broad field of explorers, not already honored with our medal, who is more richly deserving of it."

This is certainly very high praise; but if by it Mr. Murchison intended to compare Erman to Humboldt, some allowance must certainly be made for the errors too often incident to great men, and from which even Royal Geographical Societies are not wholly exempt. M. Erman must do something more, as a scientific traveler, than simply make a journey to Siberia, and publish his undigested notes of travel in two volumes, before he can be compared to the great Humboldt. He has, however, in the work now before us, furnished us with much valuable information, without committing any of the fashionable follies of the superficial, foppish, and gossiping tourists of the day.

The government of Norway having determined to fit out a scientific expedition, under the direction of Professor Hansteen, so justly famed for his researches into the theory of terrestrial magnetism, with the view of enabling that philosopher to make a series of magnetical observations in the interior of Siberia, M. Erman was permitted to become a member of the expedition. He left Berlin and proceeded to St. Petersburgh, where he met Prof. Hansteen and the others of the scientific corps. His route from Berlin was by the way of Dantzic, Konigsberg, Memel, Mittau, Riga, Dorpat, and Narva, making magnetical observations as he advanced, and also giving a scientific description of his route; but as Siberia is the subject of this paper, and as his route, as well as all parts of Russia, have been often described, we shall pass over, as briefly as possible, the few pages of M. Erman's narrative, in which he describes his journey to the dividing line between Europe and Asia.

The expedition left St. Petersburgh on the 11th of July, 1828, and took the route to Moscow, making astronomical and magnetic observations at all their stopping-places. They arrived at Moscow on the 20th of July, and remained there seven days. From Moscow their route led them to Vladimir, on a branch of the Oka, and thence to the great town of Nijnei Novgorod, the church towers of which had been visible for a great distance. On the 4th of August, the day previous to their arrival at Nijnei Novgorod, they passed through Sudogda, through which, from subsequent observations, they found that the line of no declination passed. It will be recollected, that the same line for the western hemisphere passes near our city of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.

Nijnei Novgorod stands at the confluence of the Oka and Volga rivers, about southeast of St. Petersburgh, and near the centre of European Russia. It is the seat of the great annual fair in Russia, to which merchants from all parts of the empire assemble with their merchandise. On the arrival of our travelers, they found the fair there actually going on, and were struck with the vastness of the multitude, the motley character of the people, and the variety of the strange costumes that surrounded them, as well as by the number and strangeness of the foreign tongues spoken, overpowering and extinguishing the Russian.

"We found ourselves," says M. Erman, "among wooden booths, arranged in quadrangles, and numerous enough to satisfy our expectations of a great fair. This part is given up to the retail trade. The usual variety of a Russian bazaar was to be found here, but on a scale far surpassing in magnitude anything we had seen before. We were astonished, however, to find that these magazines, which taken together would have made no inconsiderable town, were but temporary *appendages* to the far more colossal market.

"Beyond the space occupied by the wooden magazines are solid stone edifices of a single story, surrounded by colonnades, and roofed with sheet iron painted green. These are all warehouses, and form sixty-four rectangular blocks of building. In the middle of these stands a lofty and noble edifice, occupied by the officers who are charged with the superintendence of the fair. The ground floor of it becomes, at this period, the post-office, which is not to be easily matched for the wide extent of country embraced by the communications passing through it; for the letters received by the Armenian and Bokharian merchants, from their remotest Asiatic correspondents, meet here with others from all parts of Europe.

"The inner range of warehouses contains articles of European luxury. In those filled with the works of the French *modistes*, or with the productions of St. Petersburgh, or Moscow, we might fancy ourselves transported into the midst of some European capital, if it were not that at every step the passers-by remind us of the preponderance of Asiatic traffic. Books and maps have a row of warerooms to themselves. Then follow the depots of *Obrasa*, or Greek holy images, of every shape and size, as well as of amulets, wax candles, and various matters used at funerals, or in other solemnities of the Græco-Russian Church. Most of the holy images are made in the Ural, but some of them are the work of self-taught peasants, throughout the villages, who think that a peculiar merit attaches to this kind of industry. The dealers in these articles both buy and sell by retail, and their business, in conformity with popular notions, is called "truck," because it is not deemed right to buy matters of a sacred character for

> money; barter is only allowed in such articles. The precept of the Greek Church, which allows of only linear and not relieved representations of the holy personages, regards merely the uncovered part of the figure, but the dress may be in relief, and is usually adorned with gold or silver leaf fastened on the wood. Hence it is that the pictures of holy families and saints offered for sale have frequently only the faces and hands painted, the rest being left unfinished, so that the purchaser, in completing the decoration of the picture, is at liberty to consult his own piety and discretion, and to dress and gild it according to his means. The complexion of these images is always a dark brown; but the obliquity of the eyes, which is particularly observable in the pictures of the virgin, shows that the Mongolian physiognomy was that which was most familiarly known to the original designers of these portraits.
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> "The outer range of buildings in the market is occupied chiefly by foreign nations; south-eastwards, towards the Oka, are the warehouses of the Greeks. North-westwards the Armenians have a very extensive quarter to themselves."

We cannot give a more extended quotation, but this is sufficient to give some idea of the character and importance of the great Russian fairs. Merchants throng to this at Nijnei Novgorod not only from all parts of the Russian empire, but also from Independent Tartary, Bokhara, Afghanistan, Thibet and China, bringing cotton and silk fabrics, shawls, and all the most costly products of the East, and carrying away with them, in turn, European goods of every description. Many of the eastern merchants come a distance of from 1,500 to 2,000 miles. The traders from Bokhara bring goods which they have received on credit from wealthy capitalists, who are to be paid on the return of the expeditions with thirty per cent. more than the value of the goods in Bokhara. In case of loss from fire, or robbery, the traders are not released from their contract; and when such misfortunes happen to them, they prefer settling in Russia to returning home to Bokhara.

One of the chief objects of trade between the Bokharians and Russians, is the supplying the latter with *cotton*, partly raw and partly spun. Vast quantities of it are brought to the great annual fair at Nijnei Novgorod. It is not a century since the Russians generally entertained the most fabulous and extravagant notions of the origin of cotton. A story was current among them, that it was the product of a zoophitic plant called *baranez*, or lamb-plant.[*]

The German edition of Herberstein, who fully believed the fable, adds, that "the Boranez has a head, eyes, ears, and all the limbs like a sheep."

The Bokharians receive for their cotton large quantities of bar iron from the Ural mountains. A large trade is carried on at the fair in tea from China. The Tartars bring peltries of all kinds.

Each of the different nations congregated together at this great annual fair, has its own place of religious worship—the Armenians their churches, and the Mohammedans their mosques, from the minarets of which are heard, several times a day, the voices of the priests calling the faithful to prayers.

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[*] Herberstein quotes a Russian writer as follows:—"Vidisse se (circa mare Caspium) semen, melonum semini paulo majus et rotundius, ex quo in terram condito quiddam agno persimile, quinque palmarum altitudine succresceret * * * quod eorum lingua *Boranez*, quasi agnellum dicas, vocaretur * * * pellem subtilissimam babere, qua plurimi in eis regionibus ad subducenda capitis tegumenta uterentur * * * hanc rem minus fabulorum puto, ad gloriam Creatoris, cui omnia sunt possibilia."

Among the motley groups of the thousands that fill the passages of the fair are always seen the people, distinguished by their peculiar appearance, called *Mordvi.* They are aborigines of the country, and are as distinct a people from the Russians as our American Indians are from us. They are allowed to retain their ancient customs. Among their remarkable peculiarities may be mentioned their unwillingness to put animals to death, and their love of leeks, onions, and bulbous roots of all kinds.

The late great "Exposition" at London did not equal in extent one of these common *annual* fairs at Nijnei Novgorod. "The latter," says M. Erman, "contained, in that part of the fair which is built of stone alone, 2,522 store-rooms, to each of which is attached a chamber for the owner of the goods to live in. Besides these, there are 1,500 wooden booths. The number of traders at these fairs is not less than 600,000 annually.

Nijnei Novgorod was formerly the most important city in the Russian empire. In the 15th century its population is said to have been 400,000; it is now only about 18,000. In the 15th century, London, Novgorod, Bergen and Bruges were the four principal foreign depots of the Hanseatic League; but the barbarities and misrule of Ivan Vassilievitch II., in 1570, proved fatal to Novgorod, and consigned that great emporium to hopeless decay. During the 12th, 13th and 14th centuries, Novgorod formed the great *entrepot* between the countries east of Poland and the Hanseatic cities, and its wealth and power seemed so great and so well established, and the city itself so impregnable, as to give rise to the proverb—

"Quis contra Deos et magnam Novogordiam."

The ruins scattered about its present site show how vast it once must have been, with its walls of stone and gates of bronze.*

Leaving Nijnei on the 9th of August, M. Erman pursued his journey in a north-east course towards the Ural Mountains. The roads throughout the Russian empire are generally good, being repaired by the government. Mile-stones, or verst-stones as they are called in Russia, measure the distances from place to place. The Russian verst is about 1,167 yards. At short intervals, in many parts of Russia, are Crown post-houses for the accommodation of travelers. The traveler also observes along the way another class of large buildings in Russia, which are peculiar to that country. They are called *ostrog*, and are intended expressly for the reception and lodging of exiles on their way to Siberia, trains of whom are constantly seen dragging their weary limbs slowly along towards the dreary wastes and mines of that wretched country. After leaving Nijnei

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* Schnitzler, La Russie, pp. 152-174.

Novgorod, every post-house has its ostrog standing opposite. The ostrog consists of a large building, containing numerous quadrangular rooms side by side, and surrounded by a fence of palisades. Nijnei Novgorod is the general rendezvous of exiles from all parts of the empire, where they are formed into gangs and marched towards Siberia, all on foot except the sick and infirm. There are at present in Siberia about 100,000 exiles, one-fourth of whom are women.

The next place arrived at by our travelers was the city of Kazan, about four miles from the Volga, and with a population of 57,000. It has a university with 70 principal and subordinate professors, and about 250 students. Its principal object is to supply instruction in the eastern languages, or in Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Tartar, Mongul and Chinese. The city has also a theological school, with a gymnasium, an observatory, a grammar school, a Tartar school and a normal school. Several journals and publications issue from its press, among which are comprised some works in the Turkish language. There is also in the city a great clothing manufactory employing 1,000 people; there are also manufactories of cotton, hardware, earthenware, tiles, leather, soaps and ardent spirits. It carries on an extensive trade on the Volga and Caspian Sea. About 15,000 of the inhabitants are Mohammedans; the rest Protestants and Greek Church Christians.*

Perm, near the foot of the Ural, and the centre of the mining region, is the next most important place in the route pursued by M. Erman. It contains about 10,000 inhabitants, and is built mostly of wood. It is the seat of a bishopric, and has several public establishments. Its inhabitants are principally employed in smelting the iron, copper, and other products of the adjacent mines. There are about 100,000 men employed in the mineral region of Perm. The climate is, of course, very severe, it being in lat. 58° N. The soil does not produce enough food for the consumption of the inhabitants.

On the 28th of August, M. Erman left Perm to pass over the Ural to Yekaterinburg, traveling in nearly an east direction. The ascent was generally undulating, but the elevation not rapid. On the 31st of August, when between the 14th and 15th verst-stones from a place called Kirgishansk, the guides informed the company that they were on the boundary of Asia.

"For the boundary between the two continents," says M. Erman, "the Russians have here very arbitrarily selected an inconsiderable chain of hills, which rises about 200 feet above the surrounding country, (its total elevation being from 1,250 to 1,350 feet,) and, running north, forms a secondary water-partition, such as we had frequently seen on the preceding portion of our journey.

"In the days of ancient Greece, a point to which universal consent assigned so much importance, would not surely have been left without some striking monument; for even on the isthmus of Corinth the bounds of two comparatively petty provinces were indicated by a pillar, having inscribed on one side: '*This is Peloponnesus, and not Ionia;*' and, on the other:

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* Schnitzler, La Russie, p. 671.

'*This is Ionia, and not Peloponnesus.*' But the fact, that at the present day the boundary between two great divisions of the earth is not thought worthy of any special mark, may be hailed as a pleasing sign of the greater facility of movement which is now enjoyed by mankind. Nevertheless, we left behind us, in a sportive mood, a memorial of our visit to this point, which, for the imagination of the traveler at least, is not without some interest. We inclosed in a bottle a paper containing the names of the travelers and the object of their journey, written in Latin, and buried it in the wood on the south side of the road. The idea of the discovery of this memorial at some distant date was certainly very agreeable at the moment."*

After traveling a few miles from the boundary-line, M. Erman found the elevation to be 1,600 feet. This was the greatest elevation attained in crossing the mountains from Perm to Yekaterinburg, in lat. about 55° N. They found the highest mountain summits covered with tall firs. "Our guides," says M. Erman, "had *remarked that the snow* lay longer in the spring on these summits than on the road; but on the other hand, they positively declared that on no one of them did the snow remain throughout the summer; so that it is not only possible to make a road over the Ural, *which rises nowhere beyond an elevation of* 1,600 *feet*, but it is manifest that in the neighborhood of this pass there is no mountain-top which rises 500 feet higher."

This statement of M. Erman, in regard to the elevation of the pass of the Ural Mountains, is worthy of note. It is probably correct, as he was engaged in a scientific expedition, and was furnished with the most accurate instruments. Malte Brun fixes the elevation of the highest peaks of the Ural at 4,000 feet; and Schnitzler and others at 6,400.

On the second of September M. Erman reached Yekaterinburg, which is built on the shores of a small lake called Iset, and on a river of the same name, at an elevation of 850 feet above the sea. Here they compared all their magnetic observations taken from their departure from St. Petersburgh, and found that they all confirmed, as far as they went, the theory of two magnetic poles in each hemisphere. They found that the deviations of the magnet, whether in regard to the dip, variation, or intensity, had been continuously affected by a change of geographical position. With any given direction of route, the series of numbers indicating the function of any one of those three elements was found to proceed not *per saltum*, but by gradual transitions, which must be considered as a proof of conformity to some general law. As they advanced eastward, on the same parallel, there was a rapid increase of the intensity—a proof of their approach to some predominating centre of attraction—the Asiatic magnetic pole. On the other hand there must have been observed a regular diminution of the magnetic force or intensity, as they receded from Parry's North American magnetic pole, if the theory of an Asiatic pole was not correct.

M. Erman continued at Yekaterinburg and in its neighborhood, visiting the mines and making magnetic observations, until the first of October. We see nothing in his explorations of the mining regions of the Ural that have not before been given. From Yekaterinburg he made an excursion to the north along the Ural. He found the country thickly covered with forests of pine of different varieties. The gold and platinum found in this region lie in bed of pebbles, partly at the bottom of valleys, and in the alluvial plains bordering the rivers, among the detritus of hornblende and feldspar, collected between the transition-limestone rocks which bound the valleys. The quantity of gold in the undisturbed veins of quartz is much less than in the sedimentary beds.

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* Erman, vol. i., p. 153.

Bones of elephants, belonging to an early period of the world, are found imbedded in the metalliferous sand and stones along the valley of the Tura not far from Yekaterinburg.

Yekaterinburg contains about 1,000 families. Its external aspect is that of European manufacturing towns. The streets are broad and elegant, filled with spacious stone mansions, inhabited by merchants and the proprietors of mines. "The elegance of the houses in this place," says M. Erman, "would do credit to the merchants of many European cities; while their internal comfort is fully in keeping with the exterior. Many of their owners are still serfs, and obliged to pay an almost princely tribute to their lords; but this they hardly consider a grievance."

The rest of the population consists of the officers connected with the mines, who are educated at St. Petersburgh. The government establishments consist of mills, magazines, factories, guard-houses, &c.—all built in handsome style. There is also a military post, the soldiers of which are chiefly engaged in preventing evasion of the tolls, which merchants who visit Irbit are required to pay here, and in looking after exiles who pass through the town.

There are public gardens in the middle of the city—the walks of which are bordered by rows of tall bird-cherry trees, (prunus padus,) which are indigenous to this region.

M. Erman was at Yekaterinburg on the third of September, the anniversary of the accession of the reigning emperor at that time.* The present emperor, Nicholas I., came to the throne on the first of December, 1825, which is, of course, the day celebrated as the anniversary of the Czar's accession, throughout his dominions. It is a religious festival. On this occasion it is customary in all Russian towns, as on every solemn holiday, for the principal inhabitants to attend the person of highest rank among them to his house, when divine service is concluded, where the honor thus conferred is acknowledged by a public breakfast or dinner.

M. Erman visited Neryansk, a place north of Yekaterinburg, containing 10,000 inhabitants, most of whom are serfs. All of the mines in the Ural are worked by serfs. They labor from 4½ o'clock, A. M. until 7 o'clock, P. M., and their wages are 8½ kopeks (less than a penny) a day, or about nine Prussian dollars per annum. They have besides, their daily rations from the public stores. The allowance for a married serf is eighty pounds of rye meal per month; for an unmarried one, under sixteen, it is half that, and for a woman the same. The serfs have each his own house, and some have cows and horses, with the right of cutting hay. Both men and women work in the mines, the former in digging, and the latter in carrying the ore.

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* These *Travels in Siberia* were made by M. Erman in 1827, and are now for the first time, in 1850, published in America. They have not, however, lost their value, as regards Siberia.

The gold, silver, iron, copper, and lead mines of the Ural Mountains are considered quite inexhaustible. The value of the products of the mines annually, is more than $25,500,000. Three-fourths of this sum is derived from the gold and platinum. Some idea may be formed of the immense quantities of the metals of all kinds, transported down the rivers from the mountains, from the fact that the entire amount of tonnage employed is equal to that of 361 vessels of 400 tons each. All the products of the Ural are conveyed to St. Petersburgh by water. The route is down the Biela and Kama to the Volga, then up the Volga to Tver; thence down the Tverza to Lake Ilmen; thence down the outlet of that lake to Lake Ladoga, and from thence to St. Petersburgh—a distance of more than 3,000 miles. This whole route is a natural water-course, navigable at all places except at one point between Tver and Lake Ilman, where one of the natural channels has been widened, and a supply of water secured by sluice-gates. The navigation in this long route is in many places dangerous. At Bronitsui there are rapids which prevent all boats from returning up stream. They are therefore broken up at St. Petersburgh. But for these rapids there would be a free, natural passage from St. Petersburgh to the foot of the Ural Mountains, and to the Caspian Sea and all the countries bordering on it.

The communication with the Black Sea is interrupted by the portage between the Volga and Don, at Tsaritsum. The distance across the neck, or *volok*, as the Russians call it, is forty miles. The boats are taken in pieces, and carried with their cargoes across the Don, where they are re-constructed. If Nicholas had a particle of the spirit of John Bull or Brother Jonathan in his composition, this *volok* of forty miles, between the Don and Volga, would soon be annihilated. A tenth part of the money that he has spent in trying to subdue the Circassians, would make all his rivers navigable, and connect St. Petersburgh with the Black Sea.

The level of the Don above the Volga is ascertained to be 175 feet; and that of the Black above the Caspian Sea, 83 feet.

Before narrating the continuance of his journey towards the interior of Siberia from Yekaterinburg, M. Erman pauses to communicate some particulars regarding the inhabitants in the neighborhood of Yekaterinburg—the Bashkirs. They first attracted his notice from his finding that they were a portion of the usual guards of the exiles who pass through Yekaterinburg. Parties of these wretched exiles are a very common spectacle in that town. About one hundred pass through it per week—the women generally in wagons, and the men following two and two on foot. The latter, during their stay in the town, have usually chains on the leg. Their guards are Kosaks of the Ural, as they are called, and a company of Bashkir militia. These Bashkirs are entirely different in aspect and manners from the Russians. They retain their national pointed broad-brimmed hat of white felt, and close tunic of cloth of the same color, with red embroidery on the edges. Their arms are a pike and a sword, besides the bow and arrow. They are one of the aboriginal Siberian tribes, and are the chief inhabitants in the south-western part of Siberia. They consist of three cantons, over each of which there is a hereditary chief. These Bashkirs are the only aboriginal Siberians, who lead a mode of life regularly alternating from the nomadic to the fixed. They have a permanent village of wooden huts on the borders of some wood, where they pass the winter. As soon as spring opens, they betake themselves with their horses and herds to the plains, each family carrying its tent-cloth of hair. They pitch their tents in military order, leaving their cattle to wander. The men are always in their saddles. They live on mutton, mare's milk, fish, game, and the fruit of the bird-cherry. M. Erman endeavors to prove that the Bashkirs are the descendants of the ancient Agrippæi, described by Herodotus as occupying the plains north of the Caspian Sea.

The use of the Arabic characters was introduced with the Mohammedan religion among the Bashkirs; but previous to that they had characters of their own. The Russian conquerors of Siberia found engraved on the rocks, in the valley of the Puishma, inscriptions of the Bashkirs, as is supposed, indicating a highly perfected written language. It is very remarkable, that an inscription in the same characters was discovered many years ago engraved on rocks on the Taunton river, forty-five miles from Boston, Mass.*

On the 30th of September, M. Erman began to prepare for his route into the north of Siberia. On applying at the stores of Yekaterinburg for winter covering for their feet, they were recommended to dust the inside of their boots with powdered quick-lime, so that the increased action of the skin might counteract the effects of the cold. Whether they followed this strange prescription we are not told. On their way to Tobolsk, they stopped at a little town called Mokrova, where they were entertained by the agent of the Russian-American Company. They were startled at the phosphoric luminous appearance, in the night, of the rotten wood at this town. On visiting the market, which they found well supplied with fish, they were surprised to see the Russians eating roe and salmon entirely raw, without any salt even. The Russians deem them more delicious when raw than when cooked, and eat them as provocatives of appetite. "Later experience," says M. Erman, "taught us how much the influence of the cold tends to favor the adoption of raw animal food; so much so that it hardly requires the addition of salt; in fact, during the intense frost, the raw flesh, even of warm-blooded animals, loses its repulsive qualities."

Our travelers continued their journey down the Tura to the Tobol, which they followed down to Tobolsk, where the Tobol unites with the Irtuish. They arrived at Tobolsk on the 7th of October. Its lofty, white buildings, and the towers of its churches and monasteries, were visible before they were within six miles of the city. They crossed the Irtuish in a ferry-boat about two o'clock, P. M., and entered the city. A heavy snow-storm was raging at the time. As there are no such things as inns or hotels at Tobolsk, travelers, on entering, are obliged to appeal to old bonds of hospitality, or in the absence of these, to new ones formed through the kindness of the chief civil functionary, or police master of the city. The host never asks remuneration, though he will sometimes receive it when forced upon him.

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* Philosoph. Transact. 1714.

Tobolsk is in lat. 58° 11′, and long. 68° 6′ E. The population in 1835 was 15,379. The city is built partly on the low grounds along the Irtuish, and partly on a high hill back, commanding an extensive view. It is surrounded by a strong brick wall, with square towers and bastions. When approached from the west, it has a remarkably fine appearance, and it really contains some very good buildings. Along the banks of the river are suburbs inclosed by a ditch and palisades, mostly inhabited by Tartars. In 1835 the city contained 18 churches and 1,762 houses,of which 25 were of stone. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are mostly paved with wood. Such pavements are common in Russian towns. They are rather causeways made of logs than pavements.* The most remarkable public edifices are the Cathedral, in the Byzantine style of architecture, with five cupolas; the archbishop's and governor's palaces, the monastery, and a large hospital. The city was founded in 1587, and is the residence of the governor-general of Western Siberia, comprising the governments of Tobolsk and Tomsk. It has two ecclesiastical and several public schools, together with various charitable institutions. No convicts or malefactors are sent thither from European Russia, although persons banished to Siberia, for political offences, are sometimes permitted to reside in Tobolsk. The climate is very severe, so much so as sometimes to freeze mercury; but the dress and houses of the inhabitants being fitted to resist the influence of the cold, it is not so disagreeable as might be supposed.

The rivers furnish the city with an inexhaustible supply of fish; and provisions, furs and game of all kinds are cheap and abundant. Shops, theatres, and places of public amusement are numerous. Tobolsk, being on the great road from Russia to China, is well supplied with most European and Chinese goods. French wines, English porter, and books of all kinds, are to be met with. Dobell says, that "the society of Tobolsk may fairly stand a comparison with that of some of the best provincial towns in Russia. Many of the inhabitants are descendants of the Swedish officers sent there after the battle of Pultawa, to whom the city is mainly indebted for its superior civilization.†

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* The incessant joltings of the Russian log-ways, on the public roads, are said to bring on a complete paralysis of the mental faculties of the Russian postillions in a few years. M. Erman had to leave one of his postillions at Yekaterinburg affected by this disease.

† Dobell's Travels in Siberia.

The magnetic observations at Tobolsk, and since leaving Yekaterinburg, fully confirmed the theory of two magnetic poles. The intensity of the magnetic force had increased greatly.

There are no serfs at Tobolsk; the servants are, in general, Russian exiles, who attach themselves to families. "The ferry of the Irtuish," says M. Erman, "is big with fate for the numerous exiles who annually cross it, for it is this passage which is first considered as a symbol of political death; but for others, also, it enjoys a much bruited importance, in consequence of the law which grants to every one who offers himself for public service, in Siberia Proper, a step in promotion on crossing the Irtuish. Hence the passion for rank drives a crowd of officers annually from the capitals of the mother country to Tobolsk, and thence further into the interior of Siberia, where they are required to reside three years, in order to enjoy the advantages of the law.

It was the intention of M. Erman, on arriving at Tobolsk, to proceed immediately down the Obi to the Arctic Ocean, for the purpose of making scientific observations, and of acquiring information regarding the inhabitants, climate, geography, geology, &c., &c., of that remote and almost unknown portion of the globe. He found, however, that there was not time to pass down the river by water, as he intended, it being too late in the season; and he concluded to remain in Tobolsk until the river was frozen, and then to perform the journey over the ice in sledges. In the meantime he occupied himself in observing the manners and customs of the people of Tobolsk, and of those of Western Siberia generally. He describes, while treating of the trade carried on by the Russians with Independent Tartary, the predatory people of the northern parts of that country, who are called Kirgis. With these people, traffic in Russian captives is extensively carried on, and they even sell one another. The father has been known to sell into captivity to the Russians, who encourage the trade, his son; and the eldest son of a family has been known, on the death of his father, to sell into captivity his sisters, in order to get rid of supporting them. Families among these Kirgis Tartars, at variance with one another, take vengeance by capturing each other's children. The Russians favor this traffic in white slaves to a great extent. The Kirgis, who are so numerous in Western Siberia, have all been brought thither by their own countrymen, and sold to the Russians as slaves.* The Kirgis are also numerous in Bokhara, as slaves, whither they have been carried by their own people. The Kirgis who attend the merchants of Bokhara through the steppes in the north of Tartary, on their trading excursions to Siberia, are so addicted to kidnapping the children of their own countrymen, that when a caravan approaches an inhabited place, "the mothers, with the anxious bustle of cackling hens, drive their children together into a felt tent, and there guard them from their itinerant fellow-countrymen."†

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* Erman, vol. 1, p. 287. † Ibid.

All the Russians they can capture they carry off to the interior of Tartary; and to prevent their running away, they cut a deep flesh wound in the sole of the foot, towards the heel, and insert some horsehair into it. This, when healed externally, still renders walking painful. Herodotus relates, that the people of the Pontic steppes put out the eyes of their captives.

The trade between Siberia and Bokhara is carried on by caravans of camels. Caravans of from 800 to 2,000 loaded camels make the journey three times a year, but they do not penetrate as far into Siberia as formerly. These caravans also bring with them, for the Siberian market, vast droves of cattle and horses.

Some very ancient usages still prevail in Siberia. Marriages, for example, are celebrated at Tobolsk with all the ceremonies, Christian and pagan, of their earliest forefathers. Marriages are effected entirely by the Svakhi, or match-makers, and the priest. The work of the former is systematically carried on, and is divided into four different solemnities, often separated by considerable intervals. The first is called the *Svidanie*, or first meeting, in which the chosen lady, conducted by the Svakha, is shown to the gentleman from a distance only; the second step is called the *Smotrienie*, or near view; but as yet neither parties are in any way bound; the third step is called the *Rukobitie*, or striking of hands, which is celebrated before witnesses; and the fourth and last of the secular ceremony is *Dievishnik*, or maiden's feast, which closes with the decisive untying of the bride's head-dress, in the presence of the bridegroom, to indicate that she is forever his. At the wedding, in the church, the young couple set each a foot upon a small carpet spread between them, and at the same time their relatives, selected for the purpose, hold crowns of metal over their heads while the priest pronounces the benediction. They then march round the altar, the crowns still being held over their heads. At the house of the newly-married pair they receive kneeling, with holy household images resting on their heads and shoulders, together with a large loaf and a basket of salt, the benediction of their parents, while the bride and her female attendants pronounce aloud the marriage vows.

It is very singular that, at the present day, there exists in Siberia a sect entertaining the views and practices of the ancient Phrygian Ατυς, or worshipers of Cybele. They have existed in Russia from very ancient times, and the members of the sect are called Skoptsi. They not only abjure all obedience to sexual impulses, but also engage to suppress them totally by mutilation. At the beginning of the present century this equally singular and mischievous doctrine had taken such a hold in the government of Simbirsk, that it was found absolutely necessary to deviate from the general rule of perfect tolerance, and to suppress those tenets by persecution. But the delusion, apparently suppressed, rises into view from time to time in different places; and it is not many years ago that a large society of Skoptsi existed among the soldiers settled in Tobolsk.*

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* Erman, vol. i., p. 295.

Whilst waiting at Tobolsk for the Obi to freeze, M. Erman made a series of astronomical observations for the purpose of determining the exact geographical position of that place. In 1761, M. Chappe d'Auteroche was sent to Tobolsk for the purpose of observing the Transit of Venus. M. Bessel had expressed some doubts regarding the accuracy of the latitude and longitude of Tobolsk, as given by Chappe; and as this was an important element in the fixing with certainty the distance of the sun from the earth, M. Erman took particular pains to settle the question.

The first difficulty that presented itself was the entire absence of all records regarding the actual site of M. Chappe's observatory, for it had been long since demolished, and there was no one in Tobolsk who could give any information of it. At last an old Swedish artillery officer, Col. Kremer, 80 years of age, was discovered living in perfect seclusion in Tobolsk. He proved to be, on inquiry, the very person who had superintended, many years before, the taking down of the tottering and dilapidated observatory. He led M. Erman to a spot in the upper part of the town, and pointed out to him, in the corner of an old German burying-ground, the indubitable traces of the foundations of M. Chappe's observatory. On the nights of the 4th, 7th, and 15th of November, he succeeded in taking the necessary observations, from which Bessel afterwards calculated the latitude of Tobolsk, and found it to be 8″.1 less than that found by Chappe.

On the 16th of November the party began to prepare for their trip down the Obi to the Frozen Ocean. They had a formidable undertaking before them, and it was necessary to arm themselves against all the obstructions that might arise from man, weather, or hunger. They were advised by the authorities of Tobolsk to take out new passports from the governor of Tobolsk to all the towns in the region they intended to visit, the reason assigned for this being that the people of those distant regions knew little of "the power which issues from the centre of the empire" at St. Petersburgh, whereas they would respect any thing emanating from Tobolsk. In fact, the influence which the government of St. Petersburgh exerts over Siberia is very inconsiderable. In the northern parts, the people scarcely know that they are the subjects of the Czar. Catherine, it is said, seriously entertained, for a time, the idea of "giving Siberia a constitution like that of the North American states." "To make Siberia a republic," says M. Erman, "little more would be requisite than to add the title to the present state of things."

Having provided themselves with a guide who could speak the Ostyak language, furnished with clothing of furs, and laid in a stock of provisions, they were ready to proceed. Fur clothing, so indispensable in Siberia, is very cheap. An entire suit, answering for both summer and winter, and so well made as to last a man half his lifetime, can be bought for 20 roubles, calling the rouble 3s. 6d. sterling. The dress is of skins, with the fur turned inwards, and the outside covered with some durable cloth. M. Erman also laid in a stock of brandy, wine, and porter; "but we soon learned," says he, "that all these drinks may well be dispensed with on a winter's journey in Siberia, and are less conducive to the traveler's comfort than *tea*, which is above all praise." This testimony of the inutility of ardent spirits in cold latitudes was given by M. Erman, a German, twenty-five years ago, and is worthy of note.

M. Erman and party left Tobolsk on the 22d of November, in sledges drawn by horses. They found the country level and gradually sloping towards the north, and covered, particularly on the west bank of the Obi, with dense forests of tall pines. In summer these are subject to conflagrations. Vast tracts of these forests are often consumed by fire accidentally communicated by the hunters. In some places there were found, by M. Erman, thick woods of alders, willows, and poplars. The people of the country between Tobolsk and the mouth of the Obi are the Ostyaks. Their language is quite different from the Russian. The population along the Obi is thin. Small villages are found at considerable intervals, consisting of wooden houses with the windows closed, some with pieces of talc joined together, and others with fish-skins, which are translucent. The houses are kept neat and clean, and the people are honest, industrious, and happy. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing in winter, which lasts nine months; and in the short summer in tilling the soil, which is fertile, and productive of most of the small grains as far north as 60° N. lat. Beyond that there is nothing but perpetual snow and ice. The rivers abound in fish, and the forests in game. Wild fowl are abundant for a considerable distance north of Tobolsk. The banks of the Obi, in many parts, are subject to inundation.

The Ostyaks, of both sexes, are addicted to drunkenness, which extends even to their priests of the Greek Church. The sale of liquor (brandy is the only kind used) is a monopoly in Western Siberia, farmed out by an agent of the government residing at Yekaterinburg.

The people of the Obi have no want of the comforts of life; for besides the fine fish of the river, and the elk, deer, and other game of the forests, there are brought down to them from Tobolsk provisions of all kinds, teas from China, &c. The houses are heated by means of stoves and large fire-places, wood being abundant. Farther north the Ostyaks live in huts, with the floor sunk about a foot below the surface. The huts are divided into apartments by partitions radiating to the centre, where a stove supplies heat to all. Each family is required to pay two sable skins annually as a tribute to the Russian government.

The arms of the Ostyaks are bows and arrows, which they use with surprising force and dexterity. The bows are about six feet long, carrying an arrow four feet long, blunt for small game and sharp-pointed for large.

At Sosnov, in about lat. 64°, M. Erman found the village surrounded with "a superb pine forest." There were also firs and larches 80 feet high, with gigantic trunks and branches only at the summits. The houses were of logs, of a square form, with low doors on the south side. The roof is flat, and covered with earth, and embankments of earth were thrown up against the sides of the house. A small window on the south side is kept closed with a slab of ice. The inhabitants of this village were clothed in fish-skins instead of furs. Both sexes wore trowsers and vests fitting the body closely. The houses generally are destitute of furniture.

At Shorkalsky, a day's journey north of Sosnov, was found "a very respectable village," with a small wooden church. The citizens were all extremely hospitable, as everywhere else in Siberia. Some of them were wealthy, and had neat houses handsomely furnished with chairs, tables, presses, &c.

The Ostyaks tell the time of night by observing the constellation of the Great Bear, and this with surprising accuracy.

On the 30th of November our travelers arrived at Beresov, a considerable town on the Obi, about a degree and a half south of the Arctic circle: it is near the junction of the Sosva with the Obi. At this place the sun rises on the 30th of November at 9 o'clock and 39 min., and at noon has an elevation of 4° 18′ above the horizon. Most of the light then enjoyed at this place is what a Russian poet calls that of "the half-dark day." The streets are regular, and the houses of wood are carefully built with large timbers. The banks of the Sosva are here about 80 feet high, and covered with a thick forest of lofty trees. Towards the north of the town extends, as far as the eye can reach, an uninterrupted plain of snow and ice; and this, during the spring, is overflowed by the two rivers for a distance of 50 versts. In this place, as at Tobolsk, there are no inns, and, in conformity with the ancient Russian usage, the duty of entertaining M. Erman and his party was not allowed to fall on a single family, but, during a space of five days in the town, he was continually moving, as a guest, from house to house; not alone, however, for his hosts of the previous day attended him, so that at the house of the fifth host the party was very large.

Since entering Siberia, M. Erman had, at Tobolsk and other places, examined the temperature of the earth, by sinking a thermometer between 20 and 30 feet between the surface, by boring. At Beresov he sunk a thermometer 23 feet, where it was suffered to remain three hours. On drawing it up it was found to stand + 1° 60 R.; while in the open air it stood at—8° R. Nearly the same result had been obtained at Tobolsk, where the strata were also the same as Beresov. The mean summer at Beresov is as follows:

June, ...	+ 14° 8 R.
July, ...	+ 13° 4
August, ...	+ 15° 8

The market of Beresov is constantly supplied with reindeer, which are kept in large herds by the neighboring people. The reindeer venison takes the place of beef. Among the fur animals that supply the trade of Beresov are the polar fox, of which there are seven varieties; the common fox, and the beaver, which is found in the greatest abundance in the latitude of Beresov. It is not the fur of these animals which the hunters prize the most, but the precious castoreum, or beaver-stone, to which the Siberians ascribe unparalleled medical virtues. A pound of it is worth 500 roubles, or $375.

Of the feathered game in the latitude of Beresov (63° N.) are the pigeon-grouse and heath-fowl in winter, and wild ducks, in immense multitudes, in summer.

The honesty of the Ostyaks is extraordinary. Theft is not known among them. An engagement made with one of them is never broken, if confirmed with certain usual ceremonies. The bear is held by them to be omniscient, and it is appealed to as a witness by the Ostyaks. When a witness is to be sworn in a court of justice, the head of a bear is brought in. In swearing, the witness makes the gesture of eating, and calls upon the bear to devour him, in like manner, if he does not tell the truth. A promise made by them operates even after the death of him making it, the son voluntarily paying his father's debts. Frequently, families have discharged the engagements of their deceased relatives, on the production of incontestible proofs, after several generations.

M. Erman found at Beresov a number of exiles whose wives had followed them into Siberia. Such examples of connubial fidelity are far from being unusual in the history of Siberian exile. The great majority of Russian exiles are not sentenced to labor in Siberia, but only to foreign residence, and they are supported by the government, if political offenders only; if they belong to the laboring class they support themselves.

M. Erman left Beresov on the 3d of December, in reindeer sledges. On the 5th, he arrived at Kachegatsk, a hamlet in latitude 65° 15′ N., and only 84 miles from the Arctic circle. Here he found the dip of the needle to be 75° 25′. M. Erman's accounts of the vegetable productions of this high latitude differ materially from those of the usual sketches of Northern Siberia. In the latitude of 65°, he found "thick, tall trees" surrounding him on his journey. He found the larch, pine, and birch, growing abundantly, and in no wise inferior in appearance to the trees of the same kind growing in the vicinity of Tobolsk. Speaking of a trading station about 20 versts E. N. E. of Kachegatsk, he says: "The fertility of the banks (of the river) at this picturesque spot is quite famous; for not only are they adorned with forest trees, which cover the low plains on the western side of the river, and here retain their full vigor, but garden vegetables have also been reared, such as turnips, of immense size. Blackberries, also, and roses, grow luxuriantly in the woods."* The temperature of the air at this place, at the time, was 15° R., or 1¾° F. At Beresov, two days, it was 21° R., or 15¼° F. On the 6th of December, M. Erman arrived at Mushi, on the Obi, where he found the Ostyaks living in tents of reindeer skins. The day was here only three hours long: the sun, at noon, attained an elevation of only 1° 40′ above the horizon. Here he observed tattooing on the hands of the women, and trinkets in the ears of the men. Tattooing, however, is very rare in Siberia.

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* Erman, vol. ii., p. 21

On the 8th December, M. Erman arrived at Obdorsk, a small town almost on the Arctic circle. Its houses are of logs, and it has a small wooden church. The site is hilly, and to the west, in the distance, are seen the Ural Mountains, of a dark blue appearance, and covered with snow. Here they found the earth abounding in cracks, of a great depth, caused by the intense cold. The Russian flag was here, for the first time since leaving Tobolsk, seen flying on the roof of a house, occupied by some seamen who were wintering there. They belonged to the party of Ivanof, who had been engaged for seven years in a detailed survey of the coast of the Arctic Ocean, from the Petchora to the mouth of the Obi. There is no tide perceptible at Obdorsk, except when a gale is blowing from the north. On the coast of the Arctic Ocean, near the Obi, the tides are regular, and rise not above two feet.

Obdorsk is the seat of a great annual fair, held for the accommodation of the north of Siberia. This fair is frequented by all the nomadic tribes who wander over a region extending through 51 degrees of longitude, or from Archangel to the lower Yenisei. The articles brought hither by Russian merchants are exchanged for furs and *fossil ivory*, or tusks of the mammoth, for exportation. Down and geese feathers are also carried away from this fair by the Russians. The Samoyedes who dwell in the extreme north of Siberia, between the Obi and the Yenisei, bring to the fair the skins of the polar bear.

The question respecting the origin of the Hungarians, which has been so long agitated by the ethnologists and philologists of Europe, and which is made to turn on the affinity of the Magyar language with that of other nations, is discussed at some length by M. Erman, who decides that the Ostyaks of Siberia were the progenitors of the Hungarians. He discovers between the Magyar and Ostyak languages "a close resemblance in 81 of the most essential roots, as the result of a supplementary examination, 234 pairs of words." He finds a striking agreement in the characteristic terminations of verbs and noun substantives; also numerous words of the same form in both languages, and of nearly the same signification.* He thinks that "in this northern part of Siberia there is absolutely nothing, at the present day, calculated to countenance the belief, that the inhabitants, driven by some convulsion, have come hither from the countries in the south." He declares that "there is nothing which leads to the dogmatic assumption, that neither language, nor anything else characteristic of a people, can have developed itself independently in the northern regions of the earth."

The Ostyaks and Samoyedes are pagans. Their chief deity is called *Toruiv* by the former, and *Num* by the latter. Their worship is wild and full of strange ceremonies. They believe in divination, and that their priests are possessed of superhuman powers. They dance and scream around their idols.

The fish of the great Obi River are chiefly the sturgeon, different kinds of salmon, pike, perch, bleak, mullet, turbot, herring, and the dolphin. The dolphin of the Obi is sometimes 28 feet long. It is very destructive to the other fish. The inhabitants of these regions are perfect Ichthyophagi. M. Erman estimates, that of the 60,000 aboriginal inhabitants of the government of Tobolsk, each one consumes at least one pound of fish a day, and his dog two pounds; and that of the 480,000 Russians there, each one consumes at least one-third of a pound per day, from which he deduces an annual consumption of 113,000,000 pounds, or 26,000,000 of single fish.

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* Erman, vol. ii., p. 37-8-9.

The earth is perpetually frozen at Obdorsk to a great depth—at least 17 feet. On sinking a thermometer to the depth of 21 feet, it was found to stand at 1° 67 R., and in the open air at 25° R.

On the 11th December they set out for the mountains, which they reached on the 13th, and found them to be formed of step-like strata. The outer ledge of this Obdorsk range was found to be large independent masses of syenitic greenstone, thus agreeing with the Ural as seen at Yekaterinberg. Towards the middle of the mountains this was succeeded by hornblende slate, containing an abundance of feldspar, in which very fine crystals of both the constitutent minerals formed parallel and simple layers, while brown garnets were irregularly scattered through the slate. On the highest point of the range, and on the sides, were seen a yellowish and finely laminated gneiss exclusively. The tops of the mountains were quite naked, there being no snow on account of the strong wind and the extreme dryness of the upper strata of the atmosphere in this latitude. The temperature of the atmosphere was 28° R. As M. Erman had the misfortune to break his barometer the day before, he was compelled to heat water in his kettle, to observe the boiling point, which indicated an elevation of 1,660 feet. This was a low pass over the mountains. In other places the range is known to rise 4,000 feet at least. From the vertical angle observed at Obdorsk, and the distance of 75.5 versts derived from azimuth angles, an elevation of 4,813 feet was derived for the highest summit visible.

On the journey down the mountain to Obdorsk, M. Erman had an opportunity of observing some of the strange customs of the Samoyedes. A young reindeer being killed, the men, women and children began to eat it voraciously, while yet raw, warm, and reeking with blood. One old man sucked the brain out of the skull, as one would suck an egg, smacking his lips with intense satisfaction. When the company had finished gnawing and sucking the bones, their faces were covered with blood. The eating of raw fish is common.

The Samoyedes seen by M. Erman at Obdorsk, were all from the shores of the Polar Ocean. Among other articles which they brought with them were *mammoths' teeth*, which are frequently thrown up by the waves of that ocean wherever they beat upon slopes of alluvial land. Large quantities of the bones of various antediluvian pachyderms are constantly being thrown up on the shores of the Polar Ocean. The native Samoyedes believe that the mammoth still haunts their shores. Formations of earth and peat, filled with the fossil remains of the mammoth, are a very common phenomenon on the shores of the Polar Sea, beneath which lie sands rich in gold dust.

On the fifteenth of December, M. Erman left Obdorsk for Tobolsk, where he arrived on the twenty-seventh. On the fourth of January, he left Tobolsk to continue his journey eastward. From Tobolsk he proceeded up the Irtuish to Tara, and thence due east to Tomsk, and from thence to Krosnoyarsk, on the Yenisei. There was seen nothing remarkable or strikingly different in the country since leaving Tobolsk, from what had been observed in the country in the vicinity of that city. All the towns passed through were small, and the country generally level, or slightly undulating—the streams all flowing towards the north. Just before arriving at Krosnoyarsk, M. Erman crossed the mountain of Kemchug, a branch of the Little Altai. He did not ascertain the elevation, and he barely mentions crossing the mountain. The road in many places lay through dense forests of birch, poplar, pine, fir and larch.

The city of Tomsk, of which M. Erman gives but little account, is in lat. 56°, and has from 8,000 to 10,000 inhabitants. Here are work-houses for exiles, coarse cloth, leather, and soap manufactories, barracks, public magazines, military and other hospitals; an orphan asylum, dispensary, &c. There are many handsome houses in the city, but it is irregularly built, except the part overlooking the river Tom. Its principal buildings are a church, a cathedral, the tribunals, treasury, (containing the tribute of furs,) and two convents. The inhabitants carry on a brisk trade with the Calmucks and Ostyaks in cattle, furs, &c., and the town is an emporium for distilled spirits and Chinese goods. It was founded in 1604. It has a military college, with 400 students, in which are taught the mathematics, drawing, fortification, and oriental languages. Here are to be seen Kirgis and Calmuck slaves, sold by their parents for liquor and tobacco.

The Irtuish is navigable for steamboats as far up as the Chinese frontiers, though such a thing as a steamboat is quite unknown there. The scenery along the river is truly beautiful.

Krosnoyarsk is in lat. 56° 1′ N., and long. 92° E., and has a population of 4,000. The plain on which it stands is of great beauty and fertility. Its chief buildings are several churches, a stone edifice for the government offices, and a large factory devoted to several branches of industry, especially coach-building, and the manufacture of Russian leather. The surrounding country produces grain, cattle, horses, &c. In Southern Siberia salt lakes abound. In the government of Yeniseisk there are two which deposit salt naturally, and three from which it is obtained by boiling.

The Yenisei River is about 2,600 miles long. It runs through a mountainous country as far as Yeniseisk, where it is a mile in width. Its banks are high and precipitous. It is frozen over a great part of the year, like all the rivers of the country.

M. Erman resumed his journey eastward from Krosnoyarsk on the thirty-first of January, and traveled over a hilly country. The villages he passed through were occupied almost exclusively by convicts. The most considerable of these villages is Telma, of 2,000 inhabitants, all convicts, of whom 800 were employed in manufactures. From Telma to Irkutsk, "the road lies through a splendid forest of pines, firs, and larches."

Irkutsk, the capital of Eastern Russia, stands at the confluence of the Angara and Irkut rivers, about thirty miles from Lake Baikol, in lat. 52° 16′ N., and long. 104° 19′ E. It is situated on a wide plain 1,240 feet above the level of the sea. The mean temperature of its climate is 0° 3 R., or rather below the freezing point. The Angara, which is 1,000 feet broad, runs through the middle of the city. It is fortified, and has a citadel. Most of the houses are of wood. The streets are broad, but unpaved. There are thirty-three churches, twelve of stone; an exchange also of stone, and a bazaar. The Baikol admiralty house and building docks on the Angara, and the medical college, gymnasium, and *comptoix* of the Russo-American company, are worthy of a European city. Its other public buildings are the government house, theatre, several convents and hospitals, and a prison. It is the seat of an archbishop and of a Russian governor, whose authority extends over the immense provinces of Irkutsk, Yakutsk, Okhotsk, Kamschatka, and Russian-America, including Bodega. It has numerous educational establishments, including besides the gymnasium with its library of 5,000 volumes, an Episcopal seminary, high-school of navigation, with classes for instruction in Tartar, Chinese and Japanese languages; normal, secondary, Lancasterian and other schools, and a cabinet of mineralogy. It has an imperial factory for woolen cloth to supply the army of Siberia, and also various other manufactories. It imports all kinds of goods from China, and holds its annual fair in June. Its annual commerce is estimated at 4,000,000 of roubles.

Lake Baikol is nearly 400 miles long, and from fifty to seventy miles wide. It is, therefore, about twice as large as Lake Erie. It is of very unequal depth, and receives several large rivers. The Angara is its outlet, conducting its waters into the great Yenisei, and thence into the Polar Ocean. The fisheries of this lake are very valuable. It furnishes vast numbers of seals—the skins of which are sold to the Chinese. The most singular fish belonging to the Baikol is called by the Siberians *golomyuka*, (Collyonimus Baicolensis.) It is from four to six inches in length, and so very fat that it melts before the fire like butter. It is never taken alive, but is cast upon the shores by storms, where it is found dead in immense quantities. It yields a valuable oil, which is sold to the Chinese. Lake Baikol is frozen over from November to May. Its size entitles it to the name of sea. The Russian government has a fleet upon it. The navigation is sometimes dangerous from the violence of the winds.

From Irkutsk M. Erman continued his journey, crossing the lake to Selinginsk, near the Chinese frontier. On his way, he met Chinese merchants with their camels, and the town itself was full of them. The country, as he proceeded towards the Chinese frontier, rises gradually for the first 140 miles, to the height of 975 feet above the city of Irkutsk, which itself, according to M. Erman's barometrical measurements, has an elevation of 1,237 feet above the sea. For the next 170 miles southwards, as far as Urga, in Mongolia, the ascent is still more rapid, till at Urga we have an elevation of 3,187. The country then continues to be level, until we strike the border of the parched desert of Gobi, a distance of 390 miles.

Lake Baikol has an elevation of 1,345. The main road from Kiachta to Irkutsk, along which Chinese and other merchants transport their goods, passes over a ridge, called the Long Ridge, at a point having an elevation of 5,170 feet above the ocean. This point is between Sniezhninsk and Slindinsk. Over these mountains the road reaches the tops of the summits by zig-zags, protected by wooden palisades, constructed with great labor.

The vegetation in the district of country around Lake Baikol is varied and luxuriant. Nerchinsk, a little to the south of Irkutsk, but much more elevated, is celebrated for its floral treasures. Spiræas, lilies, rhododendrons, and many varieties of the rhubarb and rumex, flourish there. M. Turchaninov enumerates 1,000 phanerogamous plants in the neighborhood. In spite of the climate, says M. Erman, the flora of Irkutsk is richer than that of Berlin, exhibiting the plants of warm countries intermixed with those of the Arctic regions. Here the wild peach, the Prunus Armeniaca, thrives by the side of the Siberian stone-pine and the dwarf birch of the polar circle. The same is true of the fauna of the Transbaikalian districts; for here around lake Baikol, we see the Siberian with his reindeer passing the Mongolian with his camels; and the tigers of China are found in the same forests with the hibernating bear of the Siberian snows.*

M. Erman, as he traveled towards the Chinese frontier, met immense trains of one-horse sledges loaded with tea, tied up in hides, from China. He had frequently met these tea-sledges, between Tobolsk and Irkutsk; but here they became much more numerous. From 50 to 100 sledges were in a train, each with a bundle of hay fastened behind to make the next horse follow. They generally go at a brisk trot, and one driver serves for several sledges. The roads are in this part of the empire regularly provided with mile stones, or rather verst-posts, showing the distance from St. Petersburgh and Moscow. Irkutsk is about 5,963 versts from St. Petersburgh, the people being nearly as far from the capital as from the earth's centre. The express mail system is common in Russia and Siberia. Sledges transport packages to all parts of the empire. A package weighing one pound can be sent from Kamschatka to St. Petersburgh for one rouble, or 75 cents.† This is a little in advance of our American expresses.

Passing through Selenginsk, on the 15th of February, the headquarters of a body of border artillery, M. Erman arrived the same day at Kiakhta, at the junction of the Selenga and Kiakhta rivers, and directly on the boundary line between the Russian and Chinese empires. It is the centre of the trade and political intercourse between the two empires. It is 2,220 feet above the sea; 180 miles from Irkutsk; in lat. 50° 21′ N., and long. 106° 28′ E. The population is about 5,000. The boundary line runs through the lower town, a wooden barricade forming the divisions, through which is a wide portal displaying the Russian eagle above it, along with the cipher of Nicholas the I., by whom it was erected. "The change, upon passing through this gate, dividing the two greatest empires on the globe, seemed like a dream," says M. Erman, "or the effect of magic; a contrast so startling could hardly be experienced at any spot upon the earth. The unvaried sober hues of the Russian side were succeeded all at once by an exhibition of gaudy finery, more fantastic and extravagant than was ever seen at any Christmas wake or parish village festival in Germany." The Chinese side of the boundary is a village of 1,500 inhabitants, called Mia-mia-tchin, or the place of trade. All the Chinese are obliged to cross the boundary at sunset, and spend the night on their side of the line, at the sound of gongs. No women are allowed to reside in Mia-mia-tchin, and all Russians and foreigners are sent across the boundary into Siberia at sunset. The Russians exchange furs, sheep, and lamb-skins, Russian and Silesian broad-cloths, Russian and Morocco leather, coarse linens, cattle, and especially bullion, for tea, raw and manufactured silks, nankeens, porcelain, sugar candy, rhubarb, tobacco, musk, &c. Brick tea is the only money current at Mia-mia-tchin. Brick tea is a mixture of the spoiled leaves and stalks of the tea plant with the leaves of some wild plants and bullock's blood, dried in an oven. It is pressed into the form of a brick, each cake weighing from three to three and a half pounds. The Manchoos never use this as a drink; but to the wandering Mongolians, the Buraets and Calmucks, and to the Russian peasants and Siberian Tartars, it is indispensable. About 300,000 lbs. are annually brought to Kiakhta.

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* Erman, vol. ii., p. 151.

† Ib., p. 155.

At Kiakhta M. Erman continued his magnetic observations, and discovered that in the valley of the Salenga he had crossed a second time the line of no declination. As mentioned in the first part of this paper, he had come upon this line in Russia, west of Nijnei Novgorod, at a place called Sudogda, where the direction of the line was from N. W. to S. E.; while here in Siberia, near Lake Baikol, the direction was from S. W. to N. E.; and the observations which he had made between these places, when taken together, he found to prove, that the two portions thus differing in direction, belong to one and the same line. This refuted the hypothesis of two lines of declination in the Asiatic continent, advocated once by some. The magnetic force at Kiakhta he found to be equal to that under the 82d parallel of latitude in the meridian of Berlin.

On M. Erman's return to Irkutsk, from Kiakhta, he visited the Khamba Lama, or chief of the Lamas or Mongol priests, whose religion is nearly the same as that of the Buddhists of India. We must pass over his visit to one of their temples, which, indeed, have been often described. The geological features of the country around Lake Baikol engaged much of his attention. The whole region he found to be volcanic. The shores exhibit proofs of great violence, for strata that evidently had once a horizontal position, now stand vertically and like parallel walls. Sometimes they are split above, and then, a crag, extending from the interior region, towers high over the coast. The shores in many places are very high and perpendicular, and the water has been found 700 feet deep only 900 feet from the shore. M. Erman thinks that one and the same force raised the strata of the bank, and caused the subsidence of the ground on the site of Lake Baikol. Volcanic rocks abound. He infers, from all his observations, that the bed of Lake Baikol is a volcanic fissure or chasm. The present continuance of volcanic agencies is indicated by the great quantity of carbonic acid disengaged in the valley of the Uda, in the limits of the granite and the basaltic lavas. There are hot springs in the neighborhood, and on the borders of the lake.

Of the mineral products of this portion of Siberia lead and iron are the chief. At Nerchinsk are lead mines, yielding 3,000,000 lbs. annually; the mines of Nerchinsk are also rich in zinc, tin, iron, gold and silver. They yield about 15,600 lbs. avoirdupois of silver, annually. Copper is almost totally wanting in this part of Siberia. There are also very rich mines producing green, yellow, and blue emeralds and topazes.

On the 19th of March, M. Erman left Irkutsk for Okhotsk and Kamschatka, by the way of the Lena river as far as Yakutsk, observing the magnetic dip and intensity every morning, and the sun's altitude for the latitude. The valley of the Lena is generally fertile, covered with forests of larches, furs, pines, and Siberian cedars. It is in many places hemmed in by perpendicular rocks of red sandstone. Goitre is a very common disease in the valley of the upper Lena. The population of the valley of the Lena is very thin, it being collected into small villages or stations. M. Erman traveled sometimes 40 versts without seeing a single dwelling. As one descends the river the country becomes more barren and dreary. Long before reaching Yakutsk the cliffs along the river are of limestone. The general course of the Lena from its source in the lofty mountains near Lake Baikol, for the first 350 miles, is N. W.; it then turns and runs in an E. N. E. direction 1,000 miles to Yakutsk, the metropolis of East Siberia, where it is a wide and noble river. From this city to its mouth its course is about N. It forms, on its entrance into the Arctic Ocean, a large delta. The distance from Yakutsk to the mouth is about 700 miles; and the whole length of the river is upwards of 2,100 miles. The principal tributaries are the Kirenga, Vitim, and Olekma, above Yakutsk; and the Aldan below. The Lena is a sluggish stream, and full of islands. It is perfectly navigable. The forests on its banks are chiefly of spruce and yellow pine, both of large growth. Below Yakutsk the face of the country changes, and the river rolls through vast and almost uninhabited plains covered with snow and ice, which never wholly melt, and beneath which have been found the carcasses of the mammoth, the rhinoceros, and other fossil animals.*

On the 8th of April M. Erman saw the towers of Yakutsk, at a distance of 10 versts, after a journey of 20 days from Irkutsk, most of which he had made on the ice of the river. It is about 1,150 miles

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* Dobell's Siberia, vol. ii., pp. 62–82. Lyell's Geology, vol. i., pp. 140–144

N. E. of Irkutsk, in lat. 62° 1′, and long. 147° 44′ E. It is situated on a barren flat. It has five churches, a convent, and a fortress. It is the centre of the interior trade of East Siberia. All the costly furs, walrus' teeth, and fossil remains, are brought hither for sale from Anabar, Behring's Straits, the Polar Ocean, Kamschatka, and Okhotsk; and all kinds of European and Chinese goods are brought down the Lena from Irkutsk. It has its annual fair. The inhabitants are hospitable and gay. The climate is very extraordinary. Every winter, between December and February, the temperature falls to 40° R., or 56° below the 0 of Fahrenheit. In 1829, on the 25th of January, it was 46° R. Mercury is a solid body, at Yakutsk, for one-sixth of the year. The mean temperature of summer is about 65° F. There are at Yakutsk 128 days in the year without frost. The fields thaw to the depth of three feet, and wheat and rye are raised in the neighboring towns. It is ascertained, by actual excavations, that the earth is perpetually frozen at Yakutsk to the depth of 50 feet. M. Erman descended to that depth in a well at Yakutsk, and found that the mercury stood at 6° R., or 4° below the freezing point. He thence inferred, that the earth there must be frozen to the depth of 630 feet; since, allowing the increase in temperature downwards towards the centre of the earth to be the same there as elsewhere, water could not exist in a liquid state short of that depth.

In the gardens of Yakutsk are cultivated potatoes, cabbages, turnips, and radishes.

The power of the human body to resist extreme cold is amply shown by the statements of all travelers who have visited the highest latitudes. Men dressed in furs sleep all night in an open sledge with the mercury frozen by their side. "Even with the air at 40° R.," says M. Erman, "nothing more is necessary for comfort than good fur garments." It is a wonderful fact, that the human lungs can constantly breathe air which at the same time freezes mercury solid like lead!

The most remarkable phenomena witnessed in Siberia are those revealed by the geology of that region of the globe. The whole northern half of that country, from the mountain ranges down to the shores of the Polar Ocean, consist of strata of loam, fine sand and magnetic sand to the depth of at least 100 feet. The strata are alluvial, and abound in vegetable remains and the bones of antediluvial quadrupeds —ivory tusks, the entire skeletons of elephants, rhinoceroses, bisons, and other extinct species, filling mysteriously the strata. In the lower valley of the Lena, especially, are found the teeth and bones of mammoths, rhinoceroses, and other quadupeds, and even whole carcasses.*

As we approach nearer to the shores of the Polar Ocean, the deposits of wood below the earth, and also the deposit of bones which accompanies the wood, increase in extent and frequency. In some parts the inhabitants rely upon these deposits of fossil wood for fuel. They obtain it on the shores of lakes which are continually throwing up trunks of trees from the bottom. The search for ivory, too, grows continually more certain and productive, from the banks of the lakes in the interior, to the hills along the coast of the icy ocean.

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* Erman, vol. ii., p. 285.

In the islands along the coast these phenomena assume the most striking aspect. Thus, in New Siberia, an island about 150 miles from the coast, are hills from 250 to 300 feet high, formed of drift wood, which grew anterior to the history of our globe in its present state. On other hills of the same island, and on the isle of Kotelnoi, farther west, are heaped up to an equal height skeletons of pachyderms, bisons, &c., which are cemented together by frozen sand, as well as by strata and veins of ice. The trees and skeletons of these hills are thrown together in the wildest confusion, as if by the violence of an ocean of rushing waters. The shores of the Arctic probably once extended at least 700 miles farther south than now.

M. Erman left Yakutsk for Okhotsk, on the sea of that name, on the 23d of April. His route was nearly east, crossing the Aldan, a branch of the Lena, at about the middle of this his last route in Siberia. He found the country mountainous and very thinly populated. There is not a single town on the whole route between Yakutsk and Okhotsk, a distance of 424 miles. The eastern half of the route is extremely mountainous. The mountain range passed over between Yakutsk and Okhotsk is a continuation of the Great Altoi, a name not mentioned by M. Erman. He calls them the Aldan Mountains, from the river Aldan which rises in them. He passed over them in about lat. 60°, where he found them to be 4,200 feet in height, and covered with larches. The extensive view towards the east from this height showed the mountains to lie in three parallel ranges, running N. N. E.

M. Erman arrived at Okhotsk on the 19th of May. It is situated at the mouth of the little river Kukhtin, emptying into the sea of Okhotsk. It contains a small church, a wooden observatory, ten large buildings near the mouth of the river, and a few clusters of log houses. This is the substance of M. Erman's description of Okhotsk; but we strongly suspect that the original has been immensely curtailed by the translator, in order to produce an English edition of a size suited to the wishes of the publishers. We cannot otherwise account for so brief a description of places that are found on all maps. In the preface to the work, written certainly not by M. Erman, it is frankly confessed, that the first portion of the work—the journey across Europe from Berlin to Tobolsk—has been abridged. We are also told that the title of the work has been changed, from "Travels Round the Earth," to its present one. This became necessary to suit the bookmaking rules of publishers, who are in the habit of taking all kinds of liberties with authors, in order to make a saleable book of a given size. Thus have they hacked and hewed both ends of M. Erman's great and valuable work, cutting off all beyond Okhotsk, and miserably curtailing all west of Tobolsk.

We are furthermore told, in this preface, that the work is abruptly stopped at Okhotsk, because M. Erman has as yet published his travels no farther. But this cannot be; for Mr. McCulloch, in his somewhat extended description of Kamschatka, whither M. Erman continued his travels, quotes the latter author extensively, giving volume and page, and this he does in 1844, six years before this garbled translation appeared.

M. Erman's original work, which was published entire in two volumes, in 1833–38, was truly what its title declared it to be—*Reise um die Erde durch Nordasien und die beiden Oceane*—for his journey extended from Okhotsk to Kamschatka, whence he sailed over to the Russian colonies in America; and by way of California, Otaheite, Cape Horn, and Rio Janeiro, he returned to St. Petersburgh and Berlin, having thus performed a journey entirely around the globe. The account of this journey was, in fact, published in two distinct works, the one whose title is given above, and another entirely of a scientific character, in two volumes, with an atlas. This appeared in 1835–41.

M. Erman is at present, or was in 1847, professor of mathematics in the French Gymnasium, and "extraordinary" professor of philosophy in the University of Berlin.

ART. IV.—THE ISTHMUS OF TEHUANTEPEC.*

THE project of constructing a rail-road across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is undoubtedly the most important one that has ever been contemplated in the United States. The Tehuantepec Rail-road, too, would accomplish all the objects that that of Mr. Whitney could; and, besides, its construction would not cost the hundredth part of that of the great Pacific road.

It is truly gratifying to know, that the difficulties that have been presented to the prosecution of the labors of the New-Orleans Tehuantepec Rail-road Company, by the faithlessness of the present Mexican government, are likely to be soon dissipated, so that the rights of the company will be fully recognized and secured. Nothing but an entire disregard of the rights of our citizens by our own government can now prevent the commencement and completion of this great work. The government cannot, honorably, do less than make it an *ultimatum* with the Mexican government, to recognize fully the Garay grant, and its lawful transfer to the present company.

We propose, in this paper, to give our readers the results of the late survey of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, made by the Scientific Commission under the direction of the chief engineer, Major J. G. Barnard.

The Isthmus of Tehuantepec, from the mouth of the Coatzacoalcos River (lat. 18° 8′ 20″ N., and long. 94° 32′ 50″ W.) across to the port of *La Ventosa*, on the Pacific, in lat. 16° 11′ 45″ N., and long. 95° 15′ 40″ W., is 143½ miles wide, in a direct line. It consists of three distinct divisions, topographically considered; namely, the portion on the north side, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the foot of the mountains in the middle of the isthmus; second, the mountain region in the middle; and third, the level plains extending from the base of the mountains, on the south, to the Pacific.

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* THE ISTHMUS OF TEHUANTEPEC: Being the results of a survey for a Rail-road to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, made under the direction of Maj. J. G. Barnard. By J. J. Williams, Asst. U. S. Engineer, 1852. New-York, Appleton & Co.

The northern portion, called the *Atlantic Plains*, is made up of extensive alluvial basins, of exceeding richness and fertility, some 40 or 50 miles broad. It is watered by the Coatzacoalcos and its tributaries. The southern portion, called the *Pacific Plains*, is a vast inclined plain about twenty miles broad, and elevated about 250 feet above the Pacific. Its slope from the foot of the mountains is from 10 to 15 feet per mile. These two portions of the isthmus present no difficulties; it is the central portion only that affords obstacles to a railroad. This central portion is about forty miles broad. It is traversed, from east to west, by the Cordilleras Mountains, the continuity of which is nearly broken at the exact point where the isthmus is the narrowest. Elevated table-lands occupy most of this line of broken continuity, watered by the tributaries of the Coatzacoalcos, running through rich alluvial bottoms. These tributaries, however, are mere mountain torrents. Spurs of the Cordilleras extend into these high table-lands, and present the chief difficulty to be encountered. But fortunately there are natural passages through these spurs which would have offered almost insuperable obstacles to the construction of a rail-road, formed by the rivers Malatengo, Almoloya and Chichihua, tributaries of the Coatzacoalcos.

The streams on the Pacific coast are all small, but afford any amount of water-power for sawing lumber, or for other manufacturing purposes. The principal one is the Tehuantepec, which empties into the Bay of La Ventosa. It is not navigable.

On the north side of the isthmus, the chief river is the Coatzacoalcos, which extends three-fourths of the distance across the isthmus. The village of Minatitlan, 20 miles from its mouth, is the present head of ship-navigation, but ships may ascend ten miles farther. Light draft steamers, of two feet, may ascend, at all seasons, to the confluence of the Jaltepec, and above a distance of 125 miles from the Gulf of Mexico, by the windings of the river. The banks of the river, below Minatitlan, are very low, and frequently flooded. The mouth of the Coatzacoalcos is 115 miles west of the Tobasco River, and about 110 miles from Vera Cruz. Its width is about 1,500 feet. Vessels drawing 12½ feet of water can enter it, at all seasons, by two channels. Within the bar the water is 40 feet deep, which depth is maintained for a considerable distance. The mouth of this river offers very superior advantages as a safe and commodious harbor for ships. Cortes, in his official dispatches to the Emperor Charles V., speaks of the importance of this river as furnishing the best harbor to be found on the Gulf coast of Mexico; and it is an important fact, worthy of remark, that the soundings, as made by Cortes in 1520, more than three hundred years ago, give about the same depth of water on the bar as found now; thus showing the important fact, that the depth of water on the bar is not subject to variations. Cortes ascended this river twelve leagues.

The most considerable tributary of the Coatzacoalcos is the Uspanapa, which is in some respects superior to the former for the purposes of navigation, it having a sufficient depth of water to float large vessels to a greater distance from the gulf, and also being less tortuous. It has not yet been fully explored; but the Indians assert that it has been ascended in canoes for twenty-five days. The mountains in which it takes its rise are said to abound in mines of gold and silver. This river enters the Coatzacoalcos a few miles below Minatitlan.

The proposed southern or Pacific terminus of the rail-road across the isthmus, is the Bay of *La Ventosa.* The immense basin of La Ventosa presents a safe and commodious harbor to vessels of all sizes. The configuration of the bay allows vessels to have ingress and egress irrespective of the quarter from which the wind blows. Throughout its great extent, and on entering it from the sea, no shoals are to be met with. Everywhere in it a good anchorage is to be found. The bottom is of compact sand, and a great portion of it is mixed with clay. We gather these facts from the report of Mr. P. E. Trastour, who made a minute survey of the bay to the Tehuantepec Company. Mr. Trastour states, that the harbor of "La Ventosa is much safer than the harbor of Vera Cruz."

Let us now examine the work to be done in constructing the rail-road, fixing the northern terminus at Minatitlan, and the southern at La Ventosa.

From the actual surveys, as furnished by the engineering reports, it appears that the maximum grade on the most difficult part of the line, that is, from the Jaltepec River to the Pacific Plains, will not exceed sixty feet to the mile. This compares favorably with our roads in the United States. The maximum grade per mile of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road is 116 feet per mile; that of the Baltimore and Susquehanna, 90 feet; that of the Western Rail-road, 84 feet; and that of the New-York and Erie, 60; so that the practicability of the road, by the route surveyed, is put beyond a doubt. But all the engineers agree that there are other and better routes still, which they would have been able to point out, if the Mexican government had not suspended their labors. The route, as now surveyed from Minatitlan to La Ventosa, is 143½ miles long; but it is quite probable that this distance can be diminished some sixteen or eighteen miles.

The excavations will be made chiefly in common earth, sand, gravel, clay, and loose and solid rock. A short tunnel of 160 rods is recommended in one part of the route; or rather, we should say, four or five short tunnels, amounting in all to about 160 rods, is the tunneling recommended. This tunneling will be easy, because the work can be carried on at ten different points simultaneously, and without the necessity of raising any of the material. The Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road has two miles of tunnel; and a tunnel four miles long is now being excavated through the Hoosack Mountain, on the Western Rail-road.

As to the materials for constructing the road, these are most abundant, close at hand, and of the finest quality. The whole route affords sandstone, granite, syenite, limestone and marble, in any quantity. There are entire mountains of limestone and marble. Sand is abundant, and also clay for making bricks. Timber of the finest quality is found convenient on the whole line of the route.

The price of native labor on the isthmus is about one-third of that of the United States; and there can be no doubt, that the importation of the more expensive foreign labor could be entirely dispensed with.

We have stated above, that light-draft steamers can ascend the Coatzacoalcos River to the Jaltepec, a distance of 125 miles from the gulf—making the northern terminus of the road at the Jaltepec River, instead of at Minatitlan. The cost of the entire rail-road and fixtures would be, as estimated by the engineers, as follows:—

Cost of road from Jaltepec to La Ventosa.

Opening auxiliary road necessary for the operations of building the road	$ 131,000	00
Clearing, grubbing, graduation, masonry and bridging	4,112,657	99
Superstructure, including six miles for stations and side tracks,	785,882	79
Engine, cars, &c	251,625	00
Station buildings	140,000	00
Three light-draft steamers	75,000	00
Six barges	18,000	00
Engineering and contingencies, 8 per ceut.	440,000	00
Total cost of road	$5,954,165	78

Such is the cost of the road from the head of light-draft steamboat navigation to the Pacific. If, however, we place the northern terminus at Minatitlan, the head of ship navigation, the total cost of the road, including all fixtures and contingencies, is estimated at $7,847,896 17. In this latter case, the light-draft steamers are dispensed with, but the road is much longer.

Two other routes have been proposed—one leaving Minatitlan to the east, and proceeding directly to La Barilla, on the Gulf of Mexico. This, it is thought, would shorten the road twenty miles. This route has not been surveyed; and, besides crossing the Sierra Nueva River, it would require the construction of a safe post at La Barilla. The other route proposed is to leave the Coatzacoalcos River and Minatitlan far to the west, and crossing the Uspanapa, make the northern terminus at Paso Nueva, on the Coatzacoalcos, below Minatitlan. It is thought that, perhaps, the presence of coal, iron, silver, &c., on this route, would justify its adoption, or at least, the expense of surveying the route, before finally locating the track.

Different routes, too, through the mountains and passes are proposed; and it is highly probable that much expense and distance can yet be saved by careful surveys. All these different routes would have been carefully examined before this time, but for the edict of the Mexican authorities forbidding the survey. This is the only reason why but one route has, as yet, been surveyed.

With regard to the expense of constructing the road, as given above, it is necessary to say that the items are put down at prices nearly double of those of the same character of work in the United States; but even if the cost of the Tehuantepec road exceeded three or four times the estimated cost, the certain and immense income that it must afford, when completed, would more than justify its construction. Of this there can be no doubt.

This leads us to consider the probable income of the road.

The fact that the Tehuantepec route to the Pacific, for all countries north of the equator, and east of the meridian of Minatitlan, is the shortest, and that the isthmus, when the road is completed, can be crossed by steamboat and rail-road, in six hours, must inevitably draw into that route the great mass of all the travel to the Pacific and back again, and also a very large share of all the trade between the Atlantic and the Pacific. The following table, which we take from the work cited at the commencement of this article, will show, at a single view, what the world will gain in distance by the Tehuantepec route.

Voyage to San Francisco, in California.	Via Cape Horn.	Via Panama.	Via Nicaragua.	Via Tehuantepec.
From England.......miles,	13,624	7,502	7,041	6,671
" New-York,	14,194	4,992	4,531	3.804
" New-Orleans	14,314	4,505	3,767	2,704

		Distance via Panama.	Distance via Nicaragua.	Distance via Tehuantepec.
Saved by England	—	6,122	6,583	6,953
" New-York	—	9,202	9,663	10,390
" New-Orleans	—	9,809	10,547	11,610

We can form a pretty accurate estimate of what the travel and amount of freight will be across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, as soon as the rail-road is completed, from the amount that now goes by the way of Cape Horn and Panama. The number of passengers who have passed by the way of Panama and Nicaragua during the three years, ending December 24, 1851, is 423,960, or 141,320 annually. The amount of freight during the same time was 47,000 tons. We may safely conclude that, if the Tehuantepec road was completed, it would attract at least two-thirds of these passengers and freight, which would be 92,000 passengers annually, and 31,000 tons of freight.

There is another consideration which will turn all the travel, if not all the freight, towards the Isthmus of Tehuantepec; it is that this route is entirely free from those malignant fevers and dysentery that render the route by Panama and Nicaragua so dangerous. Yellow fever has never been known to occur on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Mr. Williams, in his report on the climate of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, says: "The climate of the isthmus is a mild and healthy one, favorable to longevity, and free from many diseases incidental to more temperate latitudes. Compared with other places selected for forming a junction between the two oceans, this isthmus has peculiar advantages. With less alluvial land at the sea level it is more healthy than San Juan de Nicaragua, and from its more northern latitude its mean annual temperature is less than that of Nicaragua or Panama." This is fully confirmed by the report of Dr. Kovaleski.

Lieutenant Maury estimates that the Tehuantepec rail-road, when completed, will realize from the Pacific whalefisheries alone, in freight, the sum of $970,800 annually, and that those engaged in the whale fishery would save, annually, $2,424,000 by sending their oil every year across the isthmus, instead of keeping it in their ships, and sending it home once every three years.

Nothing is more plain, than that commerce will always seek the markets of the world through the shortest channels, and especially when the shortest routes are the most healthy and safe. If, as we have shown above, England will save 6,953 miles by the Tehuantepec route to California, who can doubt that she would at once prefer that route? The thing is too plain to require argument. If the New-York merchant, too, saves 10,390 miles by availing himself of the Tehuantepec route, in sending his goods to California, it is quite certain that that route must have, as soon as opened, all the freight from New-York destined for California. We must also say the same of every part of the United States. What, then, will be the amount of business done by the Tehuantepec Rail-road, when it is completed and in full operation? We shall not exaggerate much if we say, that the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and its two great ports, the one on the Atlantic and the other on the Pacific side, will then teem with half the commerce of the world. A Tyre on one side will balance a Sidon on the other. It will be found, too, that an ordinary rail-road will not do the business required, and that a ship-canal, or a rail-track carrying cars of triple the ordinary size, and drawn by monster locomotives, will be the only means of satisfying the demands of commerce.

The Isthmus of Tehuantepec is one of the most delightful regions on the globe; and should the proposed road be constructed, it is destined to become densely populated. The whole region, with the exception of some portions of mountainous parts, is highly fertile, and densely covered with the gigantic trees and shrubs of the tropical forests. The forests are truly magnificent, exhibiting an almost endless variety of trees, variegated with foliage of every hue, and entwined and interwoven with innumerable vines, which, climbing to the tops of the tallest trees, arch and trellis the winding picaduras, so as almost completely to intercept the direct rays of the sun. Some of these vines are more than a foot in diameter, and contain large quantities of pure, sweet water, furnishing a welcome beverage to the thirsty traveler; others, as the vanilla, load the air with their delicious fragrance; and others, again, are covered with flowers of various hues. The trees grow to an immense size, presenting many varieties which are valuable, either for the timber they furnish, the gums, oils, and balsams they distil, the medicinal properties they possess, or the fruits and flowers they bear.*

The principal forest-trees are the India-rubber tree, in great abundance, the mahogany, lignum-vitæ, acacia, achote, maney-zapote, tamarindo, cuapinol, fern-tree, the huge ceiba, the grotesque palo amate, a great variety of palms, &c., &c.

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* Isthmus of Tehuantepec, p. 47.

On all the rivers are seen huge specimens of the most valuable trees of the equinoctial regions, mingled with a hundred varieties of *palmæ*, gracefully towering above plants of the most dense and impenetrable foliage, whose masses of verdure sweep the current at every sinuosity. The view presented to the eye, in these sylvan scenes, is often of the most enchanting nature. The varieties of the palm-tree are very great; and the diversity of its useful purposes is not less so. One kind yields substitutes for bread and yeast; another, sugar and wine; a third, oil and vinegar; a fourth, milk and wax; a fifth, resin and fruit; a sixth, medicines and utensils; a seventh, weapons and cordage; an eighth, paper and clothing; and a ninth variety furnishes habitations and furniture.*

The value of the mahogany and cedar timber of the isthmus is immense. These trees often reach a diameter of five and six feet. Indeed, all the vegetable world within the tropics is on the most gigantic scale, for there the vegetable powers of nature are seen in their fullest development, in the present condition of the earth.

Not less important is the India-rubber tree, found in astonishing numbers on all the streams of the isthmus. Its value, however, is so little appreciated by the natives, that they gather the gum only for foot-balls, or for some few medicinal purposes. It is estimated that there are at least 2,000,000 of India-rubber trees in the northern third of the isthmus, within the Garay grant. A tree yields from four to five pounds of gum in a year. If we suppose that only one half of these trees yielded but one pound each, the annual amount of gum produced would be 1,000,000 of pounds; which, at 40 cents per pound, the present value, would be worth $400,000.

Among other valuable spontaneous productions of the isthmus is the *bromelia pita*, or ixtle. It is a plant yielding fibres varying in quality from the coarsest hemp to the finest flax. The simplicity of its cultivation, and the facility of extracting and preparing its products, render it of universal use. From it are manufactured thread, cordage, mats, bagging, clothing, &c., &c. Paper is also made of it. The cultivation of the ixtle is extensively pursued in several places on the isthmus.

Of the maize, frijoles, sugar, cacao, tobacco, coffee, and cotton raised on the isthmus, it is difficult to speak, says Mr. Williams, in terms which might convey an adequate idea of the adaptation of the soil and climate to their cultivation. The isthmus is the native country of maize, and upon the wet lands the yield is two crops a year, averaging 60 bushels to the acre, and that, too, without other labor than the mere planting. In favorable years *three* crops have been raised, of 70 bushels to the acre.

The sugar cane on the isthmus is of astonishing magnitude and richness, the stalks not unfrequently exhibiting *twenty-eight* joints, with a diameter of from two to three inches. It grows wild in the valleys. American sugar-planters, located on the isthmus, would soon enrich themselves by taking advantage of the superior luxuriance and richness of the sugar-cane in that region. Tobacco of the finest quality grows equally well in all parts of the isthmus.

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* Williams' Isthmus of Tehuantepec, pp. 182-3.

The lands east of the Coatzacoalcos, and along the Gulf of Mexico, yield *allspice* in great abundance. This valuable fruit grows wild, and its cultivation is entirely neglected. It is estimated that it might be gathered annually there to the amount of $50,000. *Coffee* grows wild in the greatest abundance, and with few exceptions, no pains are taken to cultivate it, although it is of very superior quality. Chocolate is the prevalent drink of the natives, which accounts for their neglecting the cultivation of coffee.

Rice grows luxuriantly, and one single sowing yields two large crops without any additional labor. The fitness of the soil of the isthmus for *cotton* is beyond question, and the army worm is entirely unknown there. It is cultivated but little, as there are no gins in the country, with the single exception of one at Acayucam.

An enumeration of all the valuable vegetable dyes found on the isthmus would fill a volume. The indigo tree is indigenous there. Also the logwood, Brazil-wood, and the *Morus tinctoria* of Linnæus, which yields the dye known as "old fustic," are in great abundance. We cannot in this paper enumerate the tenth part of the valuable vegetable productions of the isthmus, and must refer the reader to Mr. J. J. Williams' work, entitled *The Isthmus of Tehuantepec.*

Every known species of tropical fruits grow in the isthmus in the greatest abundance. We can only mention a few of them remarkable for their delicious flavor, nutritive qualities, and abundant growth, such as the chico-zapote, lemoncillo, orange, chayote, cocoanut, lemon, pine-apple, (sometimes found weighing 15 lbs.,) melon, mamey, chiraymoga, citron, mango, banana, plantain, guava, and pomegranate; also the sweet potato and yam.

It is impossible to give an adequate idea, in a short paper, of the boundless vegetable riches that nature has lavished upon the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. As if designed to be the great highway of nations, it teems with the elements of wealth, and offers inducements to emigration that it will be difficult to resist, when the rights of the Tehuantepec Rail-road Company are fully established. What that isthmus will become in the hands of the enterprising citizens of our Republic, it is not difficult to foresee. In the hands of Mexico it will never be anything. She presides over it like the dog over the hay in the manger—unwilling and unable to use it herself, or to let others use it. But it must and will be ours; and in our hands it will be put to those valuable uses for which God intended it.

We did intend in this paper to give some account of the *fauna*, the inhabitants, the towns, productive industry, and of the geology and mineralogy of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec; but these subjects would, each of them, occupy an ordinary paper, and we must, therefore, reserve them for another time.

V.—PUBLIC LANDS OF TEXAS.

DEAR SIR:

BY an estimate made at the General Land Office of the United States at Washington, the present area of Texas is 151,885,440 acres, equal to 237,321 square miles. By our land office it is estimated at a higher figure. The amount already granted is about sixty or sixty-five millions of acres, though only 42,623,118 acres have been assessed, and 45,234,987 acres have been patented and returned for patent—showing a balance of fifteen or twenty millions of acres that are yet either unsurveyed or not returned for patent. Owing to the general anxiety to obtain patents on surveyed lands, the general belief is, that these fifteen or twenty millions of acres are yet unlocated in great part. If so, there remains yet about 110,000,000 of acres in the state subject to location, and about 90,000,000 or 95,000,000 more than all the land claims yet issued by the various authorities that have existed in this state will cover. There is, then, an immense field for the location of lands, and an opportunity for the investment of money in them, which was never better than at the present moment. Because heretofore there was so much uncertainty in regard to our government's stability, and also in regard to the validity of many land claims offered in the markets, that investments were not desirable. But now that annexation has established the perpetuity of our government, and various acts of our legislature and decisions of our Supreme Court have decided the validity of many of our large land claims, and fixed the requisites necessary to the validity of most others, the uncertainties in both cases may now be avoided by any one acquainted with our land system, so different in many respects from that of the United States.

Of the lands subject to location at present, probably one-third, or thirty or thirty-five millions of acres, are fully equal to that already occupied. On the vacant lands are known to be mines of silver, lead, copper, gypsum, &c., and vast quantities of excellent limestone, sandstone, granite, slate, and other kinds of building stone. Of the remaining two-thirds yet subject to location, nearly all of it is well adapted to pasturage, and but little of it is the absolute desert it is thought to be by many. The desert parts are only about the heads of the River Colorado, Brazos and Red River, and some districts on the Rio Grande.

When it is considered that the thirty or thirty-five millions of splendid farming lands yet subject to location lie mainly within the parallels of thirty and thirty-four degrees of north latitude, which is the true cotton region—that the countries west of Texas within these parallels are not adapted to the production of cotton in consequence of their peculiar climates—the certainty that these lands will very soon come into market is manifest. It should be considered, too, that there are now about 3,000,000 slaves in the southern states, increasing at the rate of nearly thirty per cent. every ten years; that within that time (the next ten years) a home and lands to cultivate must be found for another million of them, and that the old states can accommodate but few more of them in their present pursuits profitably;—the conclusion is reasonable, I think inevitable, that Texas, and particularly that part of it under consideration, must fill up very rapidly. The demand for new land must continue to increase. It is estimated by well informed gentlemen, that the increase of population last year was not less than about 150,000—of whom, probably, one-half were slaves. Supposing this estimate to be extravagant, yet it is undeniable that an immense immigration came to Texas last year, and that the tide is yearly increasing, and that too, in the face of short crops the last two or three years, especially the last. These considerations, with the increase of information in regard to this state, its superior advantages in regard of soil, climate, salubrity and valuable productions, with the removal of objections on the score of society and morals, will undoubtedly soon fill it up with an enterprising and energetic population.

If the Mississippi and Pacific Rail-road is ever really built, it must pass through the centre of this territory, now totally unoccupied, and various branches must leave the main road in this territory, thus causing towns, and perhaps cities, to be built in it. These branches will connect various points on the gulf coast, and other points on the north side of the road. The probability that a road will be built to the Pacific, commencing either at Memphis, New-Orleans, or Vicksburg, is very strong; and all of these roads will proceed to El Paso, to proceed thence to the Pacific by the most eligible route. Consequently the road must finally pass through this upper Brazos and Colorado country, as it is by a vast difference the most level and practicable route; and if it commence either at Vicksburg or Memphis, it will pass through the whole of the best part of the unoccupied territory above alluded to. As it would pass through the centre of the great cotton-producing belt of country, planters would soon crowd the land near it for the purpose of supplying the markets of China and other eastern countries with raw cotton,—and manufactories would soon be erected upon every eligible spot, to supply the same markets with the manufactured goods they may need.

Were this road built, the country near it not only in Texas, but all along the whole length of it, would be densely populated by the time-saving and enterprising people of the whole South. It can easily be shown, that it would save to the planter of this region, nearly, if not quite, half a year on an average, which, without this road, would be lost before he could get his crop to any market. It would soon become an avenue of trade and travel unexampled in the history of the world. The mines of New-Mexico, Chihuahua and Sonora, and of other Mexican states, would become accessible, and would yield an amount of the precious metals not now dreamed of. California and Oregon would also yield much more, because many more would rush thither over the road to assist in reaping the golden harvest.

These facts and considerations I think, demonstrate that investments in lands in this unoccupied territory will prove eminently profitable.

I append a calculation of the capabilities of Texas, based upon the observed results of planting hitherto.

Of the 151,885,440 acres in the whole state, say that only half is adapted to cultivation,—the other half being waste, or suited only to pasturage. This is much too large an allowance for poor land, but I will make it so. Of the half supposed to be adapted to cultivation, say that one-tenth is adapted to sugar:—7,594,272 acres, producing an average of a half hogshead per acre, equal to 3,794,136 hogsheads, worth at $40 per hogshead, $151,885,440. Allow one-quarter to cotton, it is 18,985,600 acres, producing say 500 pounds per acre, as a general average one year with another, though I think this below the truth, as our best cotton lands will bring from 3,000 to 4,000 lbs. per acre, and the poorest seldom less than 400 lbs., and of good seasons often rising to 2,000 lbs. per acre. Allowing 1,500 lbs. seed cotton per bale, the amount is 6,328,560 bales, worth at $25 per bale, $158,214,000. Allow one-tenth to corn, 7,594,272 acres, producing 25 bushels per acre, amounting to 189,856,800 bushels, at 50 cents per bushel, worth $94,928,400. I have not known corn less than 50 cents per bushel in fourteen years' residence, taking the average of a whole season. One-tenth in wheat, 7,594,272 acres, producing fifteen bushels per acre, amounting to 113,914,080 bushels, worth $1 per bushel, $113,914,080. Fifteen bushels per acre is the lowest estimate of wheat produced per acre that I have heard of—40 bushels are often gathered. Another tenth in oats and rye, 7,594,272 acres, 10 bushels per acre, 75,942,720 bushels, worth 50 cents per bushel, amounting to $37,971,360. There remain three and one-half-tenths, equal to 37,579,952 acres, for potatoes, turnips, orchards, gardens, woods, vineyards, but these may be left out of the present calculation as not yielding much to external commerce. Many of these things would be very valuable, however. Rice could be grown very well in some places, as also could oranges, bananas, apples, pears, peaches, figs, melons, &c. An immense quantity of fine timber can be obtained in the eastern and middle portion of the country, and any quantity of live oak may be got in the southern and western parts, and as high up the Brazos as the Crossing of Shackleford's Trail, and perhaps higher. Cedar, mezquit, bois d'arc, and other timber, also abound in many places. Silk culture could doubtless be successfully pursued on the lower Sabine and Nueces. The fish and oysters of the coast might be made a source of considerable trade and revenue. The mines have been alluded to, though little is known of them except their existence. Coal is abundant at many points.

Let us see how many people will be required to cultivate this land. Say, 15 acres are a fair quantity of land per hand as a general average; say that seven-tenths of the half capable of cultivation are cultivated. This amounts to 53,159,904 acres—to 3.543,994 laborers; and 30 acres to each horse to plow would give 1,771,997 plow-horses. If there were two other persons to every laborer, (i. e. children or women,) the number would be 10,639,982. Probably an equal number would be engaged in internal and external commerce, the learned professions, manufactures, and various other occupations, making a total of 21,263,964, or one person to about every seven and a half acres of land. Some countries sustain one person to every two or three acres of land. At this rate Texas could sustain seventy-five or fifty millions. Estimating the population at 21,263,964, and the average amount of cotton goods consumed by each at thirty yards, it would require 637,918,920 yards; to make which would require 212,639,640 pounds, or three yards per pound, of cotton, equal to 531,599 bales, at $25 per bale, worth $13,289,975. This would leave for foreign consumption and for manufactures, 5,769,960, worth $144,924,025. If each person consumes 30 lbs. of sugar, the amount is 637,918,920 lbs., equal to 637,919 hogsheads, worth at $40 each, $25,516,760, leaving for export 3,156,217 hhds., worth $126,248,680. The corn, wheat, oats, rye, &c., would probably be all consumed in the country. But sugar and cotton alone yield the enormous sum of $271,172,705 worth for export—a sum nearly double the present exports of the whole U. States! And the import trade would equal, or exceed this large sum. In the above calculation are not included the fruits, cattle, hogs, horses, molasses, mines, and the increased value given to cotton and other raw materials by processes of manufacture. This magnificent result is entirely within the limits of possibility, and probably it will be consummated in no very long period of time. Compared with such immense annual returns of agricultural wealth, the mines of California are poor; and while the gold is constantly diminishing, careful husbandry will be annually increasing the fertility of Texan fields. Immense beds of marl, gypsum and lime, will enable the farmers to keep up their fields at little expense.

RECAPITULATION.

Area of state				acres	151,885,440
One half tillable				"	75,942,720
Devoted to cotton	2½ tenths			"	18,985,680
" to sugar	1 "			"	7,594,272
" to corn	1 "			"	7,594,272
" to wheat	1 "			"	7,594,272
" to rye and oats	1 "			"	7,594,272
Small crops, potatoes, gardens, &c					27,579,952
Producing cotton		bales	6,328,560	value	$158,214,000
" sugar		hhds	3,794,136	"	151,885,440
" corn		bush	189,856,800	"	94,928,400
" wheat		"	113,914,080	"	113,914,080
" rye and oats		"	75,942,720	"	37,971,360

Small crops all consumed.

FOR EXPORTATION AND MANUFACTURE.

Cotton	bales	5,796,960	value	$144,924,025
Sugar	hhds	3,156,217	"	126,248,680
Total				$271,172,705[*]

The population of Texas, in the revolution of 1836, was supposed to be between 25,000 and 30,000; in 1848, was about 140,000; in 1850, about 200,000. The population now is about 350,000.

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[*] We presume that our Texas friend means that these calculations will be realized when the population of the United States shall be as dense as that of China, and extend as far as "manifest destiny" will allow it. After all, however, it is as easy to see through a mill-stone as into the future.—[ED.

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—THE SUGAR-CANE PLANT, SEED CANE, &c.

THE sugar-cane (*Saccharinum officinarum*) classed in botany as being a genus of the *Triandria digynia*, is a gigantic member of the *Gramineæ* tribe; and, in all its characters, is indubitably one of the most important plants afforded us by a bountiful Providence. One of its products, sugar, is so extensively used, and is in every way such a blessing to mankind, that every exertion should be made to supply it to our poorer fellow-creatures at as cheap a rate as possible.

It is used in every possible way: for sweetening and rendering palatable numberless dishes and liquids, and in making syrups which sweeten, thicken, and preserve the vegetable juices that are made use of in medicine. Fruits are boiled in syrup, and kept under the name of preserves, or sent on voyages to all parts of the known world. It is a well-ascertained fact, that man cannot only exist, but absolutely become stout and healthy, on sugar and water alone. This was evidenced by the crew of a ship bringing home a cargo of sugar: she encountered sundry disasters, which, together with calms, delayed her so long on her voyage, that all her provisions were consumed, and the crew were obliged to have recourse to the sugar on board; this not only sustained the men, but actually quite cured them of the scurvy, which had made sad havoc amongst the crew previous to their being reduced to this, their last and most providential resource: supported by this agreeable aliment, they reached their port in safety. This is by no means a solitary instance of the antiscorbutic properties of sugar; whilst its nutritious and fattening qualities are abundantly shown on every sugar estate in the world. However, as this admits of no doubt, I need not dwell on so clear a fact. Sugar is also an excellent antiseptic, much more powerful than even sea-salt; whilst, again, it is recommended by Orfila, as an antidote to the poison of verdigris and oxide of copper.

Nor are its admirable qualities appreciated by mankind alone; for the very beasts of the field, the birds of the air, and numerous reptiles and flies, delight in its sweetness and fatten under its influence.

A most absurd and vulgar prejudice once prevailed against the use of sugar in any quantity: it was said to be unwholesome, to breed worms in the stomach, to injure the teeth, to cause nausea, &c.; whereas undoubted experience has demonstrated that its effects are diametrically opposite to all this; as nothing can be more wholesome, more destructive to worms, less injurious to the teeth, or less calculated to produce nausea. Whenever nausea is produced, it invariably arises, not from the sugar, but from the vile trash mixed up with it under the general name of sweetmeats or sugar-plums. Should any one doubt this latter fact, an analysis of these articles, taken from any confectioner's shop, will readily prove it.

As a primary principle, we desire to obtain year after year, from a given quantity of land, the largest possible amount of first quality sugar, at the least possible expenditure of time, labor, and money. Such results can only be hoped for when the canes to be manufactured are brought to the mill in as perfect a state as the cane plant can arrive at, when the manufacturing apparatus is on the most approved principles, and when the process of manufacture is skilfully, scientifically, economically, and cleanly conducted in all its branches.

We see, then, that success depends on three distinct circumstances operating in unison; failure in one of which will certainly cause a decided loss more or less: perhaps so considerable as to stamp the whole affair as a vain attempt.

The first of these circumstances, therefore, requires that I should show the peculiar organization of the cane plant and the conditions under which the saccharine or crystallizable principle is elaborated and secreted in the greatest abundance. The variations indicated by the saccharometer, together with the disappointments continually expressed by planters in regard to cane juice, prove how little this subject is understood by the planting body, and how highly necessary it is for them to attend to so important a consideration.

When we reflect that cane juice has been known to show twelve degrees by Beamè's saccharometer, and yet very frequently arrives in the boiling-house at six degrees only, and very rarely indeed, higher than eight or ten degrees, we must be struck at the enormous loss sustained by the planter.

But to go further, I do not think it has yet been ascertained in any satisfactory manner, what degree of richness cane juice can be brought to by a rational system of cultivation: 20 per cent. may be its maximum; but I am inclined to think not.

What Mr. Crawford says of average cane juice (in Java) yielding 25 per cent. of sugar, is, without question, a most palpable absurdity; as I will show hereafter: besides, I have clearly ascertained (on authority of the best) that 14 per cent. is there considered high; the average being only 10 per cent. However, leaving this point to be discussed hereafter, I believe enough has been said to prove how imperatively an improvement is demanded in our system of cultivation; and I would earnestly desire the attention of the planting body to the remarks I am about to make on the subject.

It must be very apparent to every one, the great influence which particular soils, climates, and seasons exercise on the growth and development of so sensitive a plant as the sugar-cane; and it necessarily follows, that the more perfect our knowledge of the nature of such influences, the greater assurance have we of the success of our operations.

I will proceed, therefore, to demonstrate the causes which materially affect the growth of the cane, its proper development, and the elaboration of its juices.

To render this more clear, it is requisite that I should glance at the vegetable economy of the plant, its structure, and the mode in which it extracts substances forming sap from the soil, by means of its roots; also, at the manner in which this sap circulates, and is transformed by the action of the leaves and other green parts into nourishment befitting the plant, and the peculiar circumstances under which the saccharine or crystallizable matter is deposited in the cells, in the greatest abundance. In elucidating these points, I wish it to be distinctly understood that I avail myself of the opinions of the most eminent writers on organic chemistry, &c., (such as Liebig, Raspail, and others,) with which I entirely agree; as I shall endeavor to abbreviate and simplify them, to suit the character of this work, without making a constant repetition of their names.

Every planter knows that the cane plant is propagated by cuttings from the cane itself; which are usually the few upper joints of the plant nearest the leaves, commonly designated "the cane top." But sometimes the whole cane is cut up in pieces, and planted out; as every part having a perfect eye or bud will spring forth a plant.

The cane-cutting, which is used for planting, may be either one, two, or more joints of the cane itself, taken from any part of the cane stalk; as each joint possesses one eye or bud. On being planted, these eyes shoot forth; and at the same time a number of roots are thrown out around the whole circle of each joint, which serve to supply the young plants with sustenance until they are sufficiently advanced to throw out roots of their own.

It appears that, by depriving the cane-cutting of these roots, the young shoots will continue growing for sometime, and then die away before they have become strong enough to form roots of their own. For experiment, place some pieces of cane amongst mouldy straw, in a moist and hot place, and in a few days delicate roots will appear in abundance from the joints; cut off these fibres neatly with a penknife when they are about an inch and a half, or two inches long, taking care not to shake or remove the pieces of cane: watch if further roots appear, and if so, cut off the fibres, as before.

During this time the buds will have sprung forth and be growing fast; but it will be observed, that in the course of a few days after the roots are removed, the shoots begin gradually to wither away, and will finally die; notwithstanding all the care they may in other respects receive. This goes to show, that, although the pieces of cane which are planted abound in sugar, gluten, mucilage, &c., yet these alone cannot support the young shoots; which also require the absolute presence of roots, to supply, by their peculiar action, that kind of sap which I shall call "ascending sap;" being a watery solution of earthy salts. Now, in the cane, this sap is supplied by the roots emanating from the piece of cane planted, until the young sprouts or shoots become furnished with perfect roots of their own, when the parent piece dies away, and gradually decays. The sprouting of the eye, therefore, is simultaneous with the formation of roots; and both combined, constitute the effort made by the cane to reproduce itself.

With the formation of a leaf or leaves, a new action commences, (it may be termed a transformation of organic substances,) by which that watery solution of earthy salts constituting the ascending sap is first transmitted from the roots to the leaves, where it undergoes an elaboration which changes its character. The functions of leaves and other green parts of plants are to absorb carbonic acid, and by the aid of solar light and moisture to appropriate its carbon: hence they are called "organs of assimilation." On the first formation of the leaves, these functions commence: they are at first more particularly employed in their own development; afterwards in the formation of woody fibre and other substances necessary for the general purposes of the plant.

Having already mentioned the sap, which I have designated the *ascending* sap, in contradistinction to the *descending* sap, it is better to discuss the important subject of its circulation and chemical transformations at once, than to defer it longer. It is of course obvious that the roots are immediately connected with the sap-vessels, which receive and transmit the sap throughout the whole plant: but this is not all; for the sap-vessels are of two classes, viz; the ascending sap-vessels, and the descending sap-vessels; both communicating with the various organs of assimilation. The circulation is also of two characters: the first, that which is termed cellular, and the second, that denominated vascular.

The cellular circulation is that which occurs within the cells, and presents the appearance of two contiguous but unmixed currents running in opposite directions; the vascular circulation, on the other hand, is that which occurs in the vascular network, and exhibits only one continuous current in every part of the tubular vessels. The well-established fact of the power possessed by vegetable membranes, of aspiring and expiring surrounding liquids, explains the means whereby such circulation is kept up. The roots, then, supply a watery solution of earthy salts (or sap *not* tending to organize) to the sap-vessels, through which it ascends, and is diffused even to the very extremity of the leaves; whence it returns (transformed into a sap *tending* to organize) through the descending sap-vessels again to the roots.

In this progress through the plant, the sap is drawn into the different organs in succession; the desirable parts are assimilated, other parts are rejected and pass on; until, at length, those which remain unappropriated, reach the roots, and are voided as excrement.

We here find the roots performing two distinct functions, viz: the collection and transmission of nutriment, and the discharge of excrement. To enable them to perform these important duties, they are found to possess powerful organs of aspiration, by which they suck in those aqueous solutions which constitute the ascending sap; and also other organs, by means of which they expire those substances which, unsuitable or otherwise, have been rejected by the various organs of assimilation through which they have passed.

Most people have remarked the extreme tenacity with which some roots cling to rocks, stones. pieces of gravel, sand, bone, wood, or other substances; and the roots of the cane plant, amongst others, will be found adhering to minute fragments of gravel, sand, wood, &c., (forming soil,) in the same manner: yet I may venture to say, that nineteen persons out of twenty do not consider that such adhesion is caused by suction; or, in other words, by the powerful aspiration of the roots, which alone produces that suction.

Such is, in reality, the case, however; and the fact serves to show us, in a forcible manner, the wonderful power exerted by these organs of aspiration. Endued with this faculty, the roots can only extract nutriment from the soil through the medium of water; which renders soluble the constituents whereof the soil is composed. It is obvious how much must depend, in cultivation, not only on the richness of the soil, but on the supply of water which is afforded the plant; as, without an ample allowance of this essential, that richness cannot become soluble in sufficient abundance, and consequently the plant is more or less pinched for want of nutriment. It, however, often occurs that the supply of water is too great: this has a tendency to do injury to the sugar-cane, at particular periods; inasmuch as the cane may be required for sugar manufacture when its juices are from this cause too aqueous.

The nature of the soil, also, must greatly affect the quality of the sap, and influence, both in quantity and quality, the sugar produced by the plant: however, this consideration more properly belongs to another branch of the subject.

I have thus briefly described the functions of the roots, and explained that "the ascending sap," or "sap not tending to organize," is transmitted to the leaves, and other parts of the plant, and undergoes an elaboration by which it is transformed into a "sap tending to organize." I will now, therefore, touch on the manner in which this transformation is effected.

Within the tropics, the twenty-four hours may be said to be equally divided into twelve hours of day and twelve hours of night; consequently the leaves, and other green parts of the cane, inhale carbonic acid and exhale oxygen during twelve hours of daylight; whilst during twelve hours of night they inhale oxygen and exhale carbonic acid.

Whilst light is present, carbonic acid is absorbed, and its carbon appropriated: but in the absence of light, the process of assimilation is arrested; because the carbonic acid is no longer decomposed, but is dissolved in the juices which pervade all parts of the plant, and escapes every moment through the leaves, &c. But whilst daylight is so necessary in this respect, it is also equally necessary to the assimilation of hydrogen. Now, hydrogen is received by the plant in the form of water; which, by the aid of light, it decomposes; emitting its oxygen and appropriating its hydrogen. Again, oxygen is necessary to the plant; therefore we find, that whilst the plant is absorbing water by the roots and carbonic acid by the leaves, and by the aid of light, decomposing both, still the oxygen separated from each is not wholly exhaled; but a portion sufficient for its purposes, is retained and appropriated, as are the hydrogen and carbon.

We can imagine how large an amount of oxygen is set free by plants, when we consider the quantity of water and carbonic acid absorbed by their different parts: the roots, for instance, in a moist soil, are constantly transmitting an abundance of watery sap; which water, being decomposed, sets free the oxygen contained. With the carbonic acid absorbed, the same evolution ensues on its decomposition.

The quantity of oxygen thus supplied to the atmosphere is really much greater than the amount derived from it; although the plant absorbs oxygen from the atmosphere at night. The decomposition of carbonic acid is no sooner arrested by want of light, than a true chemical process commences: in consequence of the action of the oxygen in the air upon the organic substances composing the leaves, &c., of the plant.

This brief and simple explanation, I think, renders it clear, that it is through the decomposition of water and carbonic acid, that hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen are obtained by the plant; these serving to constitute the descending sap—"a sap tending to organize."

Attached to each joint of the cane plant is one leaf, whose peculiar office it is to supply elaborated sap (or sap comprised of earthy salts, nitrogen, &c., blended with carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen) to the various cellular and vascular organs existing in that joint; it therefore follows, as a matter of course, that if the joint be deprived of its leaf before this has completed its functions, considerable loss and injury must accrue to it; inasmuch as the joint is then reduced to a dependence on the nutriment its organs can derive from the already exhausted sap descending from the joint immediately above it. Hence we find that by depriving a joint of its leaf, that joint is never fully developed, but becomes contracted and imperfect. Here we see the necessity of allowing the leaves to remain on the plant until they have performed their office; when the chemical influence of the oxygen of the air produces a change in their color, and shows that they may be removed with safety.

Planters are very much in the habit of planting canes too closely together; which again leads them on to "trash" those canes too heavily: *id est*, to strip off by hand the leaves of the cane plant, in order to allow air and light to penetrate.

Much intelligence, surely, is not required to convince one that such a practice is erroneous, and, indeed, pregnant with evil consequences. Only fancy rich land planted with canes in rows but three or four feet apart, which grow up so close and tangled that a person cannot walk between the rows without great difficulty, and are so dense that no ray of light can penetrate; then consider the course pursued by the planter: he sends in laborers, once, twice, thrice, with orders to "trash heavily;" or in other words, to strip off, not only every dry leaf, but also every green leaf—except just the few top ones—so that the miserable canes are left in woful plight—naked and wretched in appearance, and rendered quite incapable of perfectly developing several joints in each cane.

Surely our intelligent planters will no longer pursue such an irrational course!

If they reflect on the simple, though necessary requirements of the plant to be cultivated, they will find that economy of time, labor, and money, and increased quantity and quality of produce, will result from a change of practice.

We often hear of "cane seed;" and latterly a very earnest inquiry was set on foot with a view to decide the question whether the sugar-cane is really raised from seed in any part of the world, or not; which terminated, I believe, in establishing the fact of there being no country known wherein the cane is, at present, raised from seed: whatever may have been the case in earlier ages. Bryan Edwards, in his work on the West Indies, says: "In Abyssinia and other parts of the East, it is easily *raised from the seed.*" Referring, accordingly, to Bruce's Travels, "we find," he says:

"About four miles from this is the village of Nizelet el Arab, consisting of miserable huts. Here begin large plantations of sugar-cane, the first we had yet seen. They were loading boats with these to carry to Cairo. I procured from them as many as I desired. The canes are about an inch and a quarter in diameter. * * * I was surprised at finding this plant in such a state of perfection so far to the northward. We are now in latitude twenty-nine degrees, and nothing could be more beautiful and perfect than the canes were. I apprehend they were originally a plant of the old continent, and transported to the new upon its first discovery; because, here, in Egypt, they grow from seed. I do not know if they do so in Brazil; but they have been, in all times, the produce of Egypt."

Such is Bruce's assertion, which has been so often quoted as proof positive of the cane being raised from seed!

Porter repeats the argument of the cane not being a native of America, as it is there never found to perfect its seed; whilst (on the authority of Bruce) he assigns to the East its original emanation. He writes: "The assumption that it has never been found native in the colonies of America, seems borne out by the fact, that, although it flourishes there, its organs of fructification appear to be without the power of fecundity. A whitish dust, or rather seed, is sometimes produced from the flowers; yet this being sown has never been known to vegetate in the West Indies; while in the East, canes may be raised from seed."

The constantly recurring idea that canes are raised from seed in Egypt and the East Indies, has kept alive a strong belief that the plant could be much improved by skilful cultivation and care, if this said seed could be obtained by European agriculturists. Hence, numerous have been the endeavors, both private and public, which have been made to become possessed of it. The Royal Agricultural Society of Jamaica took up the subject, and exhibited much industry in collecting information; and, for aught I know to the contrary, may still be pursuing the inquiry. As I have often been applied to on the subject, and have instituted many inquiries and experiments in order to satisfy myself and others, I take this opportunity of stating what I have ascertained on the point.

First. That no variety of sugar-cane is known to perfect its seed (or indeed, to produce anything like seed) either in India, China, the Straits of Malacca, Egypt, or even in the South Sea Islands; as in all those countries the cane is entirely propagated by cuttings.

Secondly. I have myself tried numerous methods, which I imagined might, by some possibility, cause the plant to perfect its seed. That many of these were fanciful, and perhaps far-fetched, I have no hesitation in owning. Under these circumstances, there is no need to make them public, or weary the reader with a long detail. It will be sufficient to give a brief account of two of my experiments, to show the principle on which I proceeded.

Experience and much consideration had quite convinced me that it was entirely useless to hope for any good results from cane flowers, of whatever variety they might be, being brought into contact with cane flowers. I therefore determined to try the *Guinea corn*, or Bajra, and the *Indian corn*, or Boota, with the cane plant. Now, both of these plants perfect their seed; and I ventured to hope, that, by planting them together, I might get the flowers of the Guinea corn and the Indian corn to impregnate and fructify those of the cane.

With this view I carefully manured the soil with such substances as I thought likely to assist the plant; and then, as they grew, cautiously but completely removed the eye or bud of each joint, as early as I possibly could, by cutting through the green leaf (without removing it) so as to get at the eye. Allowing a proportionate lapse of time, I planted the two descriptions of corn beside their appropriate cane plants; and as these grew up together, I brought the flowers into contact with each other, occasionally shaking them smartly, that they might shed their pollen on each other. The Indian corn I deprived of its buds as they appeared, forcing the plant to exert its reproductive powers on the arrow or flower, instead of the ears. My experiments succeeded admirably, so far as concerned the growth of the plants, their flowering together, and the production of seed on the arrow of the Indian corn; but, notwithstanding all my care and attention, I had not the gratification of seeing any seed appear on the cane plants so treated. Microscopic examination showed, that no change had been effected, as regarded the formation of seed; and the failure of this, my last hope, set the question at rest in my mind.

I feel satisfied that we shall not succeed in fructifying the flower of the cane; and, moreover, that we shall find no well-authenticated instance of the plant having been raised from seed. Indeed, I know of no sufficient authority for the belief that it ever was raised from seed.

So far as Bruce is concerned, I can readily understand myself—and imagine I shall have little difficulty in explaining to others—how, in all probability, he was mistaken in the matter. In the first place, I have often known men to whom I have remarked on the cane seeding, say: "But is it really a fact that the cane does not seed? I cannot certainly believe that; for I have seen whole fields of it in blossom, and the flowers hanging down as if quite heavy with seed."

Another told me that he has often passed fields nicely smoothed over, and on inquiring from the natives what was planted therein, has been told, sugar-cane: whereas, if pieces of cane had been planted in the field, he would have been able to see them sticking out of the ground; so that it must have been the cane seed which was planted, not pieces of the cane itself. These kinds of assertions I have very frequently heard made use of by really intelligent Englishmen, who had resided many years in India; but, like many others, had not been at the trouble of inquiring into matters that were not in their own particular line of business.

A native will sometimes leave a small patch of cane uncut, in one corner of his field, until his land is ready for planting; and if asked why he so leaves such cane, he will reply, "My land is not ready for planting yet, so I have left that for seed." Such an answer would be very likely to make a stranger believe that the native was waiting until his land was prepared, and the cane seed perfectly ripe: especially when he sees the canes in flower.

2.—THE COTTON INTERESTS, AND HOW THE PLANTERS MAY RECTIFY THE EVILS OF LOW PRICES.

We are indebted to Dr. W. C. Daniell, of Savannah, for this paper.

The Executive Committee of the Southern Agricultural Society respectfully submits to the consideration of the Cotton Planters' Convention, about to assemble in Montgomery, Alabama,* the question of offering a sufficient inducement to mechanical skill to supply a simple and effective machine to gin, card and spin, on plantation, from five to ten pounds of cotton per hour, so as to provide every planter, who may desire it, the means of converting, on his own premises, into yarn or twist, every pound of cotton which he shall produce. The elements of such a machine already exist; and all that is needed for its production is the inducement which a liberal premium would supply.

In the progress of society the objects of pursuit become multiplied. The deficiencies of yesterday are supplied by the ingenuity of to-day. Every new combination in supplying existing demands, creates new wants; and invention in fulfilling one want, creates another. This is the progress of society—fertile in expedients and rich in results.

The introduction of the culture of cotton in Georgia, as an export—for it had been grown in several of the southern colonies for domestic use—supplied the saw-gin, the invention of Nathan Lyons, to whose mind the circular saw on a wooden cylinder was suggested on seeing Whitney's gin—wire teeth in circles around the wood cylinder—in operation in Savannah. For a time, cotton was prepared by toll-gins for market—one or more in a county; next, the more enterprising planter would have his own gin, and cleaning, perhaps, the cotton of one or two of his neighbors as well as his own. Now, the cotton planter considers a gin a necessary element of his business, and the cotton press has become almost as indispensable a necessity.

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* This Convention, which was to have met in May, has been postponed—why, we know not.

Is this to be the limit (the *ultima thule*) in the progress of the cotton planter? Shall he remain content with what has been achieved? And multiplying his cotton bags, and consequently reducing their value, increase the profits of the spinners of his staple in the ratio of the reduction of his own? His cotton has stimulated all the improvements in machinery which have rendered it so important an element of commerce and civilization. And this has been the work of but little more than half a century. May he not participate in all the benefits, whose foundations rest on his labors? Why shall he incur so much of the toils, and partake so scantily of the advantages incident to his staple in its vast ramifications through society?

In a brief period in the lapse of time the annual production of cotton in the United States has risen from a few thousand to near three millions of bags, and in proportion to that increase has become the dependence of the great manufacturer, England, upon our slave-labor for her supply of cotton—a dependence almost involving the existence of her political, if not her social condition. Strenuous efforts have been made, and are not yet abandoned, to relieve herself from a dependence as mortifying to her self-love as dangerous to her future prosperity and independence. But Great Britain is not alone. The cotton spinners everywhere, out of the slave-holding states, profess to be grieved that they are dependent upon slave-labor for their cotton, and it would seem, as Manchester and Lowell are the loudest complainants, that the amount of grief felt at using our cotton is about in proportion to that of their profits—so that we may estimate, with some approach to accuracy, the amount of income derivable, in a manufacturing district, from the use of our staple, by the energy of its denunciations of slavery. "*Sed hæret in latere lethalis arundo.*" The love of mammon is not extinct, and our slavery carries a silent consolation, if not reconcilement to pharisaical philanthropy.

If our soil and climate do not, our slave-labor certainly does place us beyond the reach of rivalry in the growth of cotton. When free labor is engaged in the production of any commodity, the amount of labor directed to it is regulated by the relative amount of reward or wages which the price of the article supplies to that labor. In the slave-holding states, the great amount of existing slave-labor is directed to the production of cotton, and will be so applied, almost independently of the price of the article; certainly so long as cotton pays anything beyond the cost of production, preparation for and transportation to market, and by cost of production is here meant the actual outlay for the time, exclusive of the money value of the laborers and land. The soil and labor being property, the price of the product (cotton) regulates their value, and does not, to any perceptible extent, affect the amount of labor engaged in its growth; and hence the capacity of the slave-holding states' to drive from the European market the cotton of any other country, the product of free labor. The character of our labor constitutes alike our strength and our weakness—our strength to maintain possession of the cotton market—our weakness to resist combinations against us, whom all the world denounce and cherish. Whilst our slave-labor secures a market for our great staple, there is a great, perhaps a growing, insecurity to remunerating prices to that labor. Whilst high prices will not increase our production of cotton much beyond the natural increase of our slave population, they stimulate production abroad, where another kind of labor is employed in its culture. And whilst low prices exercise but little influence in lessening our production, they are potent in reducing the production of cotton by free labor. The future condition of the cotton planter, under these circumstances, then, must mainly depend upon his own energies and his own resources. What these energies and resources are, the history of the past speaks in distinct and emphatic language. However much we are habitually calumniated abroad, and whilst these calumnies have given a sombre hue to the lights through which many of us at home look upon the future of our condition, it is certainly true that the slave-holding states will not compare discreditably with other states, under like circumstances, in any age or quarter of the world. The states north of us are estimated and judged of by the commerce and thrift of their cities and the number and noise of their factories, without reference to the small per cent. of their whole population, living and laboring in them. We are an agricultural people;—our wealth, our population, our pursuits, our intelligence and our refinement, are of the country and in the country. It may be safely affirmed, that the society annually present at the prominent watering places south of Mason and Dixon's line, need not shun comparison with any other, elsewhere, for decorum, propriety, intelligence and good taste. That society is essentially southern and agricultural, and represents a much larger at home, which is stationary.

Our adversaries herd in the public marts; they fill up the highways; they combine; they control public opinion; they command the press, and exercise, not always, a just and wholesome influence over the opinion of the factors who sell our crops. They estimate our productions, and too often regulate the prices, upon data made for the occasion. We do not, perhaps we cannot, combine. We do not dispatch couriers through every district to learn and report the amount of the incoming crop. We cannot raise money upon our produce, although immediately as it passes into the hands of the merchant or speculator, he can raise upon it the price he has paid for it. If we endeavor to investigate the prospects of future prices, we can grasp only the information which the speculator and the manufacturer have prepared for their own purposes, and we sell our crops with the haste of an auctioneer getting off a cargo of West India fruit on a frosty day. If there be not, within the power of the cotton planters, the means of protection against all the disadvantages to which their position subjects them, they may yet do much to increase the returns on their invested capital, and exercise a salutary influence upon prices—to some extent enhancing them, and to a greater extent divesting them of their fluctuations, which, taken in all its bearings, is, perhaps, the greatest evil to which cotton planters are subjected.

Great Britain habitually imports about one-sixth more raw cotton than she manufactures, and, according to Baines, in his History of Cotton Manufacture, makes a profit of ten per cent. upon the exportation of a portion of that excess to Havre. And she converts into yarn and exports about one-fifth more of the amount of her imports of raw cotton. This is not the place to inquire into the means by which she is enabled to monopolize so large an amount of our raw staple, and to engross so large a profit by a mere transfer of what she cannot use at home, across the channel. It is more germane to the purpose of this paper to inquire if the cotton planters of the United States may not, themselves, spin and export part or all of that excess of yarn, which Great Britain spins, but does not make into cloth? The more direct and practical proposition is, may not the cotton planters look forward to the time when the exportation of raw cotton will be as rare as the exportation of seed cotton was thirty or forty years ago? There are not as great difficulties now to the spinning and exportation of yarns as existed some sixty years ago to the ginning and exportation of clean cotton. Then the cotton gin was in the hands of the patentees, who endeavored to make a "great East India concern of it" by establishing ginneries at numerous points in the cotton region, and coercing the planters to sell their cotton in the seed, by refusing to sell rights to use the gin. That scheme of monopoly, amounting almost to fraud, was defeated by the ingenuity of Nathan Lyons, who, as already stated, invented the saw gin. Now, all the elements for ginning, carding and spinning exist in machinery of almost perfect construction, and its adaptation to the planter's wants is alone necessary to enable him to spin his own crop at his own homestead. The spinning of cotton—as was one time the ginning of it—is a distinct pursuit, employing a distinct capital, and creating a distinct and antagonizing interest to that of the planter. The same energy that enabled him to unite the ginning out of his crop with the production of it, will now unite, in his own hands, the production, ginning, carding and spinning. And he will find that he will add proportionally more to the profits of his investment by carding and spinning than he has by ginning his crop; for the women and children may be readily taught to spin, in winter, what they have aided in cultivating and gathering. But a few years ago it was a matter of doubt, in the minds of many earnest friends of slave-labor, whether that labor could be successfully applied to what is called operative service—that is, to attendance on machinery engaged in manufacturing cotton and wool. But more recent experience in Georgia, as well as elsewhere, has fully proved that negroes make very good operatives. And they are now employed successfully in many factories, and nowhere, it is believed, has there been a failure in the application of slave-labor to factory purposes. Many planters have felt the importance of reducing the production of cotton as the best if not the only means of enhancing the price. The chief difficulty has been to supply to the planter a remuneration equivalent to the loss supposed to be sustained by a reduction in the amount of his crop. To card and spin the cotton at home, will much more than give that remuneration, should the reduction of production amount to twenty or thirty per cent. upon his ordinary crop. The reduction in the crop would not be a necessary incident, though a probable one, on its conversion into yarn at the homestead, because it is confidently believed that the planter would be prompted by a clear conviction that he would find the greatest profit in growing no more cotton than he could convert into yarn by his own force; unless, indeed, he should call to his aid a portion of the white rural population, abounding in all the southern states, whose condition and comforts would be improved by becoming operatives in factories. These are, however, but little more than matters of detail, which every planter will readily decide for himself.

The purpose of this paper being to suggest, for consideration, the incorporation, into the plantation system, of an important economical element, eminently calculated to sustain that system, as is humbly believed, and impart new life to it, there is scarce occasion to present a systematic course of argument to the intelligence to which it is respectfully addressed.

In conclusion, it may be remarked, that whenever cotton planters shall have added to the growth of their staple machinery to gin, card and spin it for exportation, they will as certainly be enabled to undersell distant manufacturers of yarns as they have undersold the producers of cotton by free labor, and they will be in a position to dispose of their yarns at prices which will supply an active demand, with adequate remuneration for all the cotton which they can produce.

On motion of Dr. Daniell, of Savannah—

The fluctuations in the price of cotton have long been felt as a very serious evil to all the great interests of the country, and plans have been suggested to supply more steadfast prices, to an extent strongly indicative of the prevalence of this conviction. As a measure calculated in its tendencies to exercise some influence in correcting these fluctuations, the Executive Committee of the "Southern Central Agricultural Society" recommend to the Convention of cotton planters to assemble in Montgomery, Alabama, in *May next*, to offer a premium sufficient to stimulate the mechanical skill of the world to supply a *simple* and *effective* machine, calculated to gin, card, and spin into any of the numbers in ordinary use of yarn about ten pounds of clean cotton per hour, which cotton planters may introduce upon their plantations, to spin into yarn during winter, the cotton grown the preceding season.

WM. TERREL, Chairman Ex. Com. S. C. A. S.

J. V. JONES, Sec., S. C. A. S.

3.—THE FIRST BALE OF COTTON.

The Charleston Mercury, in the annexed extract, contradicts our statement, (April No., 1852, p. 361,) that not a single bale of cotton, of this country's growth, was exported previous to 1787. The authority relied upon by us was "Smither's Liverpool," in which all the imports from Carolina, New-York, or Virginia, previous to that time, are classed as the productions of the Spanish Main and the West Indies, *re-exported*. We never doubted that cotton had been produced in Carolina very long anterior to that period, and so stated it, in a very elaborate history of the plant, in our number for April, 1846, vol. i. We also mentioned the fact that it was grown in Louisiana as early as 1760, being introduced from St Domingo, and that M. de Maurepas suggested the importation of machinery from the East Indies for the separation of its seed—(vol. i., p. 300.) It was cultivated in Alabama in 1772, and a machine used for cleaning it. The bags were suspended between two trees whilst being packed, and contained about 300 pounds—(vol xi., Review, p. 148.) The Mercury is, no doubt, right in stating, that small quantities of this cotton were *exported;* but it is difficult to determine how much of the exports were of native growth, and how much were derived from West India commerce, &c. We believe the Charleston accounts do not show this: they might be examined to advantage on the point.

The following is the extract from the Mercury, to which we append a further reference to the subject by a Cotton Planter:

"'THE FIRST BALE OF COTTON.'

"In the last number of De Bow's Review, in an elaborate article on the Cotton Culture, it is stated, as a matter beyond dispute, that 'not a single bale of this country's growth was exported previous to 1787.' This statement was made long ago—it has been corrected; but, somehow, the correction seems never to have overtaken the error, and it has a great chance of becoming history by dint of repetition. The precise date of the introduction of cotton into Carolina we have no means of fixing; but it is certain that it was exported from Charleston more than a century ago. In a publication entitled, 'A Description of South Carolina,' put forth in London in 1761, there is a minute statement of the exports of the products of the province from this port for the year ending the 1st November, 1748. In that list we find 'Cotton Wool, 7 bags, at £15, S. C. currency, per bag.' There may yet be discovered documents showing at what precise time, and by whose hand, the germ of this wonderful culture was first planted.

"It was certainly insignificant for a long time, and probably during the troubles of the Revolution nearly disappeared; but we have shown that its appearance, as an article of commerce, after the peace, was only the revival of a suspended branch of industry, humble enough at that time, but deeply interesting from its after history."

"'THE FIRST BALE OF COTTON.'

"MESSRS. EDITORS: Under the above head you offered some remarks, and presented a fact, in your paper of the 15th instant, to controvert the position assumed in the last number of De Bow's Review, that 'not a single bale of this country's growth was exported previous to 1787.'

"On this interesting subject, I find the following information in Governor Seabrook's Memoir on the Cotton Plant, published a few years ago:

"'In a pamphlet of the date of 1666, entitled, 'A brief Description of the Province of Carolina, on the Coast of Florida,' the writer, in speaking of the Cape Fear Settlements, made only two years before, says—'They have Indigo, Tobacco, very good, and Cotton Wool.' Dr. Hewitt, in his historical account of South Carolina and Georgia, while commenting on the introduction of silk into the former, and the products of the earth, for which premiums ought then to have been given to those who should bring to market the greatest quantities of them, alludes particularly to cotton, and, after detailing the manner of planting it, remarks, that this article, 'though not of importance enough to have occupied the whole attention of the colonists, might, nevertheless, in conjunction with other staples, have been rendered profitable and useful.'

"In Wilson's account of the 'Province of Carolina, in America,' published in 1682, it is stated, that 'cotton, of the Cypress and Malta sort, grows well, and a good plenty of the seed is sent thither.' In Peter Purry's description of the Province of Carolina, drawn up in Charleston, in 1731, 'flax and cotton' are said to 'thrive admirably.' In the journal of Mrs. Pinckney, the mother of General Thomas and General Charles C. Pinckney, who, as Miss Lucas, when only eighteen years of age, was entrusted with the management of the planting interest of her father, the Governor of Antigua, is the following memorandum: 'July 1, 1739—wrote to my father to-day a very long letter on his plantation affairs—on the pains I had taken to bring the indigo, ginger, cotton, lucerne and casada to perfection, and that I had greater hopes from the indigo than any other.' 'June, 1741—wrote again to my father on the subject of indigo and cotton.'

"It is a well-authenticated fact that, in 1736, as far north as the 39th degree, cotton, 'on the garden scale,' was raised in the vicinity of Easton, in the county of Talbot, on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake Bay. About forty years afterwards it was cultivated in St. Mary's county, Maryland, and in the northern county of Cape May, in New-Jersey; also in the county of Sussex, in Delaware.

"Among the exports of 'Charles Town,' from November, 1747, to November, 1748, are included 7 bags of cotton wool, valued at £3 11s. 5d. per bag. In 1754 'some cotton' was again exported from South Carolina. In 1770 there were shipped to Liverpool three bales from New-York, four bales from Virginia and Maryland, and three barrels from North Carolina. Before the Revolutionary War, Virginia exported, *communibus annis*, hemp, flax-seed, and cotton, to the value of $8,000. In 1784, an American vessel that carried eight bags to Liverpool was seized, on the ground that so much cotton could not be produced in the United States. In 1785, 14 bags; in 1786, 6 bags; in 1787, 109 bags; in 1788, 389 bags; in 1789, 842 bags; and in 1790, 81 bags were received in Europe from this country. Of these, 153 bags were sent directly, and a portion of the remainder by the way of Philadelphia and New-York, from Charleston. The first bag of cotton sold in South Carolina, was purchased, in 1784, by John Teasdale, from Bryan Cape, then a factor in Charleston. The first bag of the wool exported from that city to Liverpool, arrived January 20, 1785, per Diana, and was consigned to Messrs. J. & J. Teasdale & Co.

"Governor Seabrook, in the pamphlet from which the above are extracts, after assigning very satisfactory reasons for his belief, that the seed of short staple cotton was originally introduced into this country from the Mediterranean, says: 'Peter Purry is represented to have brought with him, among other seeds, that of cotton. This and a paper of the same material, received by the Trustees for the Settlement of Georgia, from Philip Miller, of Chelsea, England, it can scarcely be questioned were from the Mediterranean. Mr. Wilson, already quoted, says expressly that the Carolina sort was from Cyprus and Malta. In a pamphlet entitled 'American Husbandry,' published in London in 1775, the writer remarks, that 'the cotton cultivated in our colonies is of the Turkey kind. On the other hand, it must be supposed, from the language of their historian, that the Cape Fear emigrants, who began the growing of the gossypium only two years after they had established their settlements, were provided with seed from Barbadoes.'

"In reference to Sea Island, or black seed cotton, the writer states, that it 'began to be raised in Georgia, in experimental quantities, in 1786. The native place of the seed is believed to be Persia. It is designated the Persian cotton by Bryan Edwards, and is so called in the West Indies, and by the merchants of England. The seed grown in this country came from the Bahama Islands, where it had been introduced, by the Board of Trade, from Anguilla, a small island in the Caribbean Sea, and was sent by Mr. Tatnall, then surveyor-general of the Bahamas, Colonel Relsell and others, to Governor Tatnall, James Spalding, Richard Leake, and Alexander Bisset, all of Georgia.'

"Want of time prevents me from furnishing other extracts.

"If A. E. Miller, the publisher, has any copies of the 'Memoir on the Cotton Plant' on hand, I recommend him to offer them to the public for sale.

"A COTTON PLANTER."

4.—FLAX COTTON.

We copy the annexed from the Plow, Loom and Anvil; but in regard to our planters being ruined by the competition of flax cotton, will add—*credat Judæus apella non ego.*

"The annexed notice of the progress of the arrangements for the production of flax cotton, taken from an account of the late New-York State Agricultural Fair, can scarcely fail to have interest for our readers of the planting states, and we desire to call to it their special attention. Southern policy has *driven* southern labor almost exclusively into agriculture, for it has looked to the separation of the spindle and the loom from the plow and the harrow, the consequence of which is, that all the cotton-spinning machinery of the world is now located in the flax-growing countries of the world, which latter are now engaged in a vigorous effort to throw off all dependence upon the producers of cotton; and that effort will be successful, and that at no distant period, if it be not at this moment. What, then, will be the condition of the planter? Even now he is almost ruined, when his crop reaches two and three quarter millions, and even the prospect, that such may be the size of the crop, has reduced the price to an average of little more than thirty dollars per bale; but, let the present movement be perfectly successful, and there will soon be added a million of bales of flax to take the place of as many bales of cotton, and then even twenty dollars a bale will be considered a high price. We entreat our southern friends to study well their prospects, and to determine for themselves, if their security against such movements will not be greatly increased by adopting the measures necessary for bringing the spindle and the loom to their own cotton fields, and thus making a market on the land for the products of the land.

"Nothing, however, arrested our attention in this hall but the specimens of flax-cotton and its various proportions, exhibited by E. G. Roberts, assignee of Claussen's patents for the United States. We saw one intelligent, influential citizen converted from skepticism to enthusiasm for flax-cotton by his first earnest examination. It *will* go inevitably. A cotton fibre scarcely distinguishable from Sea Island may be produced from flax by Claussen's process for six cents per pound; and a machine for breaking out the fibre from the unrotted stalk was exhibited by Mr. Clemmons, of Springfield, Massachusetts, which is calculated materially to expedite the flax-cotton revolution. This machine renders the entire fibre, with hardly a loss of two per cent., as 'swingle-tow,' straight, and wholly separated from the woody substance, or 'shives,' at a cost which can hardly equal one cent per pound of dressed flax. Its operation is very simple, and any man who has seen it work a day may manage it. Its entire cost is from $125 to $200, according to size. It will be a shame to American agricultural enterprise if flax-cotton and linen are not both among our country's extensive and important products within the next three years."

5.—THE ENORMOUS CROP OF COTTON.

The able commercial editor of the Charleston Mercury thus speculates upon the prospects of the cotton trade:

We hear the present crop of cotton so frequently described as enormous, that we hope we may be pardoned for indulging in a few statistics respecting it. We readily grant, that ten years ago 2,800,000 bales would have been an enormous crop, but we are very far from conceding that that quantity may now be regarded in the same light.

On the 31st of December, 1845, the stock of American cotton in Great Britain was 624,000 bales; since then we have produced (exclusive of the present crop) six crops, as follows:

1845- 6	2,100,000	bales.
1846- 7	1,778,000	"
1847- 8	2,347,000	"
1848- 9	2,728,000	"
1849-50	2,096,000	"
1850-51	2,355,000	"
		"
Total	13,404,000	"

Amounting to the very large aggregate of 13,404,000 bales; yet, at the close of this period, viz: on the 31st of December, 1851, Great Britain held a stock of only 221,000 bales, or 100,000 bales less than on the 31st of December, 1845; and France, the rest of Europe, and New-England, were still more bare of stock. Yet, in the face of these well-known and striking facts, the present crop has been hurried to market, and sold with a precipitancy, that, low as prices have been, would evidently have led to still greater sacrifices, if the *enormous consumption* had not prevented it. The manufacturers, and indeed all the world, seemed to have more confidence in the value of cotton than the planters, and bought with an avidity that the activity of the panic-stricken planters to sell could hardly keep pace with; and what has been the result? The business season is nearly over; 2,511,000 bales out of the 2,800,000 or 2,850,000 bales—the supposed extent of the crop—have already been brought to market; the stocks in the interior towns (those of them that publish their stocks) are 70,000 bales less than at the same period last year; showing, in a very striking manner, how universal has been the policy of selling and forcing all the cotton down to the seaports. When planters hold back a portion of their crops, it is for the most part held in these inland towns, under advances generally from factors or warehousemen; and it may therefore be justly inferred, that the condition of these stocks is a fair index of the condition of the country generally, as regards the quantity of cotton yet to come to market. But let us admit that there is as much as last year on the plantations; and that, including the towns, there are (notwithstanding the deficit of 75,000 bales) 340,000 bales yet to be received—only 30,000 bales less than was received last year in the same period; this quantity, added to the present receipts of 2,511,000 bales, would give a crop of 2,850,000 bales. With this crop, how will the world make out? We shall say nothing of the diminished supply that Great Britain will receive from India, (estimated at 100,000 bales,) but confine ourselves to American cotton only. How will Great Britain be sustained as compared with last year?

Up to the 16th inst. the receipts of the present crop in the seaports amounted to	2,511,000
Last year at the same date they were	1,983,000
Excess of receipts this year	528,000

But this excess, considered so enormous, has already been distributed and disposed of; for, instead of having a corresponding excess in the stocks in the seaports, it appears, on the contrary, that we have but 5,000 bales more stock than last year. In the distribution of cotton, of course Great Britain has got her share of the excess of 528,000 bales, and alarmists will naturally look to see to what extent the stock in Liverpool has swollen under this plethoric influence. Let us look at this:

1851, April 16th, exports to Great Britain	1,040,000
1850, " " "	846,000
Excess of supply over last year	194,000

Liverpool, March 26, (the latest date.)		
Import this year	336,000	
Import last year	300,000	
Excess of imports		36,000
Stock last year	332,000	
Stock this year	176,000	
Reduction in stock		156,000
Diminution in supply, as compared with last year		192,000

In other words, if we add to the stock which was held in Liverpool on the 26th of March the whole excess in the exports from this country down to the 16th of this month, they would then have a stock barely equal to that they held on the 26th of March, last year, viz:

Stock in Liverpool, March 26th, 1852		176,000
Excess of exports to Great Britain up to the 16th of April	194,000	
Leaves excess already received in Great Britain down to the 26th of March	36,000	158,000
		334,000
Stock 26th of March, 1851		332,000

It is thus demonstrated that all additional supply of cotton over last year that Great Britain shall receive from us this year, and put into stock, has yet to be exported from this country, and how any excess of magnitude can be sent, remains to be seen. We have no more stock than last year, or but 6,000 bales more. If the crop do not exceed 2,850,000 bales, we shall have but 340,000 bales more to get—which is less than the supply at the corresponding period last year, by 26,000 bales, viz :

Stock this year	567,000	
Estimated receipts	340,000	
		907,000
Stock last year	561,000	
Receipts to 1st of Sept	372,000	
		933,000
		26,000

Out of this remaining supply, viz : 907,000 bales, with New-England, France, and all the manufacturing countries in Europe competing actively for an unusual share of the crop, how England can get more than she did last year out of 933,000 bales, when all her competitors had almost retired from the field, we cannot perceive. But let us admit that we do give her a further excess; that we send her, before the 1st of January, 1853, in addition to the present excess of 194,000 bales, a further excess over last year of 50,000 bales; this would give an additional supply above that of last year of 1,250 bales per week, for the forty weeks from the 20th of March up to the 1st of January; and how far this excess is likely to go into stock may be inferred from the fact, that the consumption up to the 26th of March (to say nothing of the increased exports) has been at the rate of 30,178 bales per week for the same period last year, and 23,350 bales per week as the average of the whole year. But at all events, it is clearly seen, that Great Britain commenced the year with a stock of only 251,000 bales; that including the entire excess of exports up to the present day, she cannot have made any addition whatever to that stock; that it is highly improbable that our future exports, to the end of this year, will exceed those of last by more than 50,900 bales; and, consequently, if she do no more than consume from the 26th of March to the 31st of December, 1852, the same quantity of cotton that she did during the same period in 1851, she can add to the above stock, at the end of the year, but 50,000 bales.

The planters could not be in a better position to command an advance in price upon the remainder of the present and the whole of the ensuing crop; and it really appears marvelous to us that they should evince such a groundless eagerness to sell at the present low prices.

6.—THE COTTON TRADE—THE INDUSTRIAL INTERESTS OF THE SOUTH.

To evince our entire impartiality, we copy from the Washington Republic the following paper. It always helps us to hear both sides fairly presented:

The causes, character and extent of the dictation exercised by England over the cotton trade of this country are strongly misapprehended by many of our southern planters; or, if understood, are regarded with most unaccountable apathy. England must purchase a certain portion of the cotton crop. Her agents in this country watch with keen eyes the annual growth of the crop, and through their correspondents in the different localities, ascertain the probable amount of production and of home consumption; and by deducting the latter from the former quantity, they arrive at a knowledge of the surplus for exportation. This amount, ordinarily, governs the price abroad. If this surplus exceeds the amount required by the British manufacturers and the Liverpool speculators, the price is fixed by them at a low figure, and *vice versa.*

The surplus of the crop of 1847–48 amounted to 1,741,000 bales, which, at an average of 7½ cents, realized $65,000,000. That of 1848–49, was 2,103,000 bales; at an average of 6½ cents, realized $68,000,000. That of 1849–50 was 1,501,000 bales, realizing $82,500,000.

Thus it is seen that 1,501,000 bales, surplus crop of 1849–50, brought more than 2,103,000, surplus of 1848–49, by $14,500, estimating the bales at 500 pounds each.

Mr. Carey, in one of his excellent articles on this subject, says:

"How entirely the price is dependent upon the quantity to be exported, and upon the amount of power granted to the British manufacturer over the crop, may be seen from the following facts:

"When the surplus for which a market was to be sought abroad was

Under 1,100,000 bales, the price was 14 cents.
" 1,400,000 " " 10 "
" 1,700,000 " " 8 "
" 1,800,000 " " 7½ "

And when it exceeded 2,000,000 bales, the price fell to 6 cents."

The crop of 1851–52 is estimated by Mr. De Bow at 2,550,000 bales. Estimating the domestic consumption as in 1850–51 at 464,000 bales, it remains to be seen how much this surplus will put into the pockets of the planters.

The planter, then, has a direct and important interest in the increase of the domestic consumption of this staple. But, under the tariff of 1846, it has been constantly decreasing, and will continue to decrease to the end of its last impoverishing chapter. The decrease in the home consumption of the crop, from '48–49 to '49–50, was 3,000 bales; from '49–50 to '50–51, 131,005 bales, leaving the consumption of the last period about the same as in '45–46—having gone back a period of some five or six years; whereas the consumption should have been 1,000,000 of bales, and would have been, under the operation of the tariff of 1842. Under that tariff, in '43–44, it was 346,000 bales; in 1844–45, it was 340,000; in '45–46, 452,000; in '46–47, (before the tariff had a chance to exert its baneful influence,) 468,000. Deducting 1,000,000 bales for home use, 2,550,000, the whole crop, we should have for export 1,550,000 bales only; whereas, in fact, we have a surplus of 2,082,000 bales to sell abroad. Who does not see, then, that the planter would obtain, on an exportation of 1,550,000 bales, 11 cents per pound? whereas, on an exportation of 2,082,000 bales he will probably obtain an average of 7 cents per pound.

The Southern planters need not look far from home to see that the consumption of cotton is annually declining. In 1848–49 the South worked up 110,000 bales—in 1849–50, 107,000—and 1850–51, but 60,000 bales. Well, they commenced their manufacturing operations in 1842, under the tariff of that year, and with that tariff, had it remained intact, by this time the South would have driven both British and Northern *coarse* fabrics from the market. It can put up factories by the side of its cotton fields, thereby saving all the expense of transportation, wharfage, drayage, commissions, insurance, &c., on the raw article, with all which it goes charged to the Old England and to New-England manufacturers. The North being unable, under these circumstances, to compete with the South in the manufacture of coarse articles, would have turned its attention to making the finer qualities of goods, and thus both the South and the North would have moved on prosperously and with true harmony of interests. Instead of this, cotton factories, both South and North, are closed, or are closing or working short time, consuming only a paltry 450,000 bales of cotton per annum, when they should and ought to have been able by this time to consume one million of bales.

How long will the Southern planters continue to seek some new and untried method to better their condition, in preference to that which is so obviously before them? They held, not long since, a convention at Macon to effect this. It ended in something much like smoke. Another convention is to be held in May next, having in view the same object. We predict nothing practicable will grow out of it, unless, profiting by bitter experience, they resolve that the restoration of the tariff of 1842, with some amendments, perhaps, is what is needed to enable the South, in a comparatively short period, to supply the markets of the world with coarse cotton fabrics. Such a restoration, followed by the erection of factories commensurate with their ability, would soon emancipate the cotton-growers from the thraldom of British dictation. Without protection they will in vain continue to struggle against the competition which now bears them down. Conventions and central committees, with all the missives and suggestions that may emanate from either, will prove of no avail, unless accompanied by measures that will promote the development of home manufactures.

7.—AN IMPROVEMENT IN MAKING SUGAR.

Our readers will remember that some eighteen months ago we gave an account of a new method for clarifying sugar, introduced to the public here at the time mentioned, after being successfully tried in the West India Islands, and principally in Cuba. The invention, we believe, is of English origin. The principle was that of the results of rapid centrifugal motion, applied to a fluid substance in a revolving cylinder.

The machinery was simple enough, took up but little room, and required a very small expenditure of steam and fuel. It consisted of a stout iron cylinder, some three feet in diameter, eighteen inches or two feet deep, and stationary. Within revolved on the same flat circular bottom plate, moved on a pivot by a belt and shaft combination acted upon by steam, three cylinders or sides, very close together, two of fine wire work, and one of sheet iron or zinc—we forget which—punched full of diminutive holes.

A charge of coarse common sugar and syrup, brought to the consistency of a thick paste, and weighing say one hundred and eighty-five pounds of sugar to fifteen of syrup, was placed on the bottom plate. This, and the wire cylinders firmly attached to it, and which were open at the top, were set in very rapid motion by the steam—being run as high as two thousand revolutions a minute—the syrup, to which was now added some clear water, flew out of the whirling interior cylinders, through the minute interstices of the wire work and punctured zinc side into the empty space bounded by the outward and stationary cylinder; the sugar banked up several inches deep against the inner zinc plate, but could not go through; and when the machine was stopped, in six or eight minutes, the syrup and water was found to have run off through a tube into buckets placed to receive it, and was ready for use again in another charge; whilst the sugar in the cylinder was taken out perfectly clean and dry, brought from a deep molasses color to a pure glittering straw tint, the crystals perfect, and the clarified article worth in the market from eight to ten cents per pound, while the original article cost three and a-half and four cents.

Everybody who saw the experiments made daily here for a month or so with one of these centrifugal clarifying machines, was astonished and delighted with the rapidity of its operation, its facility and certainty. But, in this machine, and in several which were put up in a refinery at Lafayette, the great objection was found that they were continually getting out of order. The whirling motion communicated to the interior cylinder was so very rapid, that there was not only danger of its flying to pieces suddenly, but there was an actual experience to prove the great wear and tear of the pivot, bands, &c.

Finally, the whole thing was given up here in disgust, and the "centrifugal machine" was pronounced a humbug.

It so happened that four months since, Mr. Janin, the proprietor of that very large and extensive sugar refinery erected near the Battle Ground, below the city, was called to the Island of Cuba—ill-health, we believe, forcing him to leave here for a time. He found, at several large plantations on the island, the "centrifugal clarifier" in successful and every-day use, working with perfect safety and ease, and greatly to the advantage of sugar makers Mr. Janin hastened back here, bought up all the "centrifugal cylinders" he could find—even the very machines which had been thrown aside in this city as good for nothing—and for the last two months they have been in operation at his refinery, working as regularly, smoothly and safely as could be desired.

Besides these seven old machines at the refinery, there are two new ones, made by the inventor expressly for plantation use. They are worked by a diminative vibrating engine of about three horse-power, with the motion applied directly to the interior cylinders. The waste steam at the refinery suffices to work this engine, the power of whose direct action on the centrifugal machine is very simply and easily controlled. All the machines at the refinery are run at the rate of about twelve hundred revolutions a minute. The charge of sugar and syrup in each machine is two hundred pounds—one hundred and eighty-five of sugar. In six minutes the charge is clarified. By the old and expensive process it would take about thirty days. The average cost on the levee of the sugar used for these machines is two and eleven sixteenth cents. The average price of the clarified article is four and seven-eighth cents. The two improved plantation machines—either of which, we forgot to state, can be worked while the remaining one is stationary and being cleaned out—can clarify easily thirty-two hogsheads of sugar every twenty-four hours. The loss at the refinery, on the charge of two hundred pounds, is about fourteen per cent; but on a plantation, this would not be experienced, as the charge, in the state of paste required, could be taken immediately from the cooling vats.

The improved machine is, indeed, admirably adapted to plantations. It will effect a thorough revolution in the process of sugar making, dispensing with the costly apparatus of vacuum pans, &c., saving time, labor and money to a vast extent. All our statements in regard to the matter are made from the well-tried experience of daily renewal, of a thorough machinist and sugar maker in charge of the works of the Battle Ground Refinery.

8.—PRODUCTION OF SUGAR IN LOUISIANA, 1851–'52.

NAMES OF PARISHES.	No. of sugar-houses.	No. by steam-power.	No. by horse-power.	No. of hhds. sugar.
1. Rapides	46	34	12	10,127
2. Avoyelles	30	15	15	3,398
3. West Feliciana	20	18	2	5,894
4. Point Coupee	65	58	7	7,187
5. East Feliciana	14	14	—	1,645
6. West Baton Rouge	57	48	9	10,842
7. East Baton Rouge	53	43	10	7,076
8. Iberville	133	111	22	15,835
9. Ascension	62	52	10	14,034
10. St. James	85	70	15	17,719
11. St. John the Baptist	67	47	20	10,920
12. St. Charles	38	37	1	9,629
13. Jefferson	29	29	—	7,775
14. Orleans and St. Bernard	25	25	—	5,773
15. Plaquemines	45	45	—	12,345
16. Assumption—Bayou Lafourche	146	51	95	18,001
17. Lafourche Interior, do.	76	46	30	11,681
18. Terrebonne, do.	91	51	40	13,498
19. St. Mary—Attakapas	188	62	126	27,379
20. St. Martin, do	95	17	78	6,052
21. Vermillion—Lafayette	22	2	20	730
22. Layfayette	19	2	17	783
23. St. Landry—Opelousas	68	36	32	4,420
Divers small parcels, made in hogsheads and barrels, in different sugar-houses, not reckoned				3,600
Cistern bottoms of 203,922 hogsheads brown sugar, at an estimate, say of five per cent				10,204
Total	1474	914	560	236,547
Estimated at....257,138,000 lbs.				

Brown sugar made by the old process	203,922	hhds.
Refined, clarified, &c., including cistern	32,625	"
Total	236,547	"

The above statistics are from the valuable annual report of Mr. Champomier upon the crop. Forty-three plantations in the state are worked on the various new processes and vacuum principle. Quality of the crop generally indifferent, the season being bad. Deficiency of rains throughout the state. There are 1,474 sugar plantations in Louisiana, 914 being worked by steam and 560 by horse-power. The molasses crop unusually large, averaging this year 70 gallons to the 1,000 lbs. sugar; the crevasses on the Mississippi, Lafourche and Plaquemines destroyed 9,000 or 10,000 hhds.

The refineries of Louisiana worked up the following:

Louisiana Steam Refinery, 1,467,905 lbs. Louisiana sugar, 52,872 lbs. cistern sugar, 538 boxes Cuba sugar. Battle-ground Refinery, besides the crop of the plantation, (550,000 lbs.) 3,214,767 lbs. sugar, 537,222 lbs. cisterns, 211 boxes Cuba. Lafayette Refinery, 81,765 lbs. sugar, 2,735,114 lbs. cisterns. Valcour Aime's Refinery, besides the crop of 678,000 lbs., 1,859,487 lbs. sugar, 1,004,098 lbs. cisterns, 800,986 lbs. Cuba. The Louisiana Refinery also worked up 2,809 gallons Louisiana molasses, and 249,629 gallons Cuba; the Battle-ground, 94,554 Louisiana, and 179,260 Cuba; the Lafayette, 7,047 gallons Cuba; and the Valcour Aime 88,555 gallons Cuba Molasses.

Sugars received in the West from Louisiana.

			1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
St. Louis	hhds. sugar		12,671	21,823	25,817	25,580	28,522
"	bbls. and boxes		9,114	10,033	10,079	23,460	38,768
Cincinnati	hhds. sugar		16,649	27,153	22,685	26,760	29,803
"	bbls. and boxes		12,313	14,103	9,422	15,472	22,196
Pittsburgh	hhds. sugar	supposed				6,000	7,000
Wheeling, Va	hhds.	"				1,500	2,400
Portsmouth, Ohio	"	"				1,600	2,000
Maysville and Augusta, Ky	"	"				1,500	2,200
Madison, Ia	"	"				1,000	1,300
Louisville, Ky	"	"				14,000	15,000
New-Albany, Ia	"	"					2,000
Evansville and Wabash, Ia	"	"				3,500	5,000
Cumberland River	"	"				5,000	5,700
Tennessee River	"	"				2,000	2,200
Mills's Point	"	"				1,000	1,100
Memphis	"	"				6,000	7,000
Steubenville and Wellsville, O.	"	"				800	1,000
Wellsburg and Parkersburg, Va.	"	"				400	500
Marietta and Gallipolis, Ohio	"	"				500	600
Pt. Pleasant and Guyandott, O.	"	"				400	500
Lawrenceb'g, Aurora & Vevay, Ia.	"	"				500	600
Warsaw, Henderson and Owensburg, Kentucky	"	"				900	1,000
Jeffersonville	"	"				400	500
Mt. Vernon & Shawneetown, Ia.	"	"				500	700
Many small buildings on the Ohio, at least 30 in number, say	"	"				1,500	1,700
On the Mississippi, above Memphis, about twelve or more small landings, say	"	"				250	300
Sundry parcels purchased by flatboatmen, traders, &c., say	"	"				5,000	6,000
Exclusive of the states of Arkansas, Mississippi, Louisiana, & part of Texas, via R. River	"	"					

COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—WHAT WILL BE THE RESULT OF THE ENORMOUSLY INCREASED PRODUCT OF GOLD UPON PRICES AND GENERAL PROSPERITY?

The news recently received from California and Australia is of the most astounding character. If one half of the accounts we get from these countries is true, we must look for a wonderful revolution in all the financial and commercial systems of the world. It appears, by a report lately issued from the Treasury Department, that from 1482 to 1803, the product of the gold and silver mines of the world amounted to five thousand four hundred millions of dollars, being an average of about seventeen and a half millions per annum. From 1803 to 1852 the average annual product is estimated to have been sixty millions of dollars. Previous to 1803, the annual increase in the supply of bullion was too small to affect the currency very materially, or to affect prices to any extent; for the amount annually added to the circulating medium of the world at the time was considerably less than the annual product of the mines, allowances for the manufacture of precious metals into articles of luxury and necessary use being required, to arrive at a correct result. Since 1803 the annual supply of bullion from the gold and silver mines of the world has been comparatively large, being more than three times the previous average. This has had a greater influence upon prices. At the close of 1851, it was estimated that up to that date the aggregate yield of the gold and silver mines of the world had been nine thousand millions of dollars. The effect on prices of this rapid accumulation of bullion has commenced, as is shown in the annexed table, taken from returns of the Bank of England, and official reports of prices for wheat in Great Britain:—

Circulation and Bullion of the Bank of England.—Prices for Wheat per Quarter.

	Price of Wheat.	Bullion in Bank.	Circulation of Bank.
1765	£1 19 1	—	—
1775	2 11 3	£2,010,690	£7,440,330
1785	2 7 8	2,740,820	5,923.090
1795	2 14 3	6,127,720	14,017,510
1805	4 1 2	5,883,800	17,874,170
1815	4 17 6	2,036,910	27,261,650
1825	3 18 8	8,779,100	20,753,760
1835	3 1 6	7,154,000	18,819,000
1845	2 17 3	15,592,292	21,049,645
1852	2 4 8	19,682,930	19,980,020

It is impossible to give in a table a proper comparative statement of the fluctuations and variations in prices, or the financial movements which affect them. There are numerous causes that more or less affect prices; but it will be seen by the above table that prices have expanded as the bullion in the bank and notes in circulation increased. The changes in the commercial system of Great Britain which have been made within the period named in this table, have, no doubt, had an important influence on prices. The modification of the corn laws had a wonderful effect, and the seasons are great regulators of the market value of breadstuffs. The value of the currency is, however, one of the most powerful influences brought to bear upon prices for every species of property.

An addition of sixty millions of dollars annually to the stock of gold and silver bullion of the world was hardly large enough to affect the value of property generally. Probably not more than one half of that amount was added to the metallic currency of all countries, the rest having been required for the arts, for luxury, &c. This, compared with the enormous amount of fixed and floating property it would have to influence to affect prices, was too insignificant to have been visible in any market.

At times the financial and commercial world has been convulsed for the want of a sufficient supply of metallic currency. Revulsions have been the result of too great an expansion of the paper currency, required during periods of speculation to supply the demand for a circulating medium. The rapidity and extent to which paper representatives of gold and silver can be increased, and the effect of this paper expansion on prices of every species of property, has been at times most disastrous. Having no real basis, and having been provided to meet the artificial wants of a community during the highest state of speculative excitement, it could not be sustained, and the result in every instance has been the same. We are now about entering upon a new era in finance, and an extraordinary state of things altogether. What the consequence will be, no one can at this moment determine. The production of the old and new gold and silver mines of the world, from this time forth, is likely to be very large. Before the discovery of the gold mines in Australia, and before the mines of California had been properly worked, the annual product of precious metals was about sixty millions of dollars. Australia will, it is estimated, yield this year nearly eighty millions of dollars; California about the same amount: Russia, Africa, Mexico, South America, and other parts of the world, about forty millions; making in round numbers an aggregate of two hundred millions of dollars as the production of gold and silver for the year 1852. While this enormous accession to the supply of precious metals is going on, we have hundreds of paper manufacturing machines, located in all parts of this country and Europe, actively engaged in turning out promises to pay on demand in immense quantities. Banks are starting up in almost every town and village in the Union. The old mills are hard at work, and the new ones will not suffer their machinery to remain idle. It is our impression that during the present year the paper currency of the world will be augmented at least fifty millions of dollars. This, added to the augmentation of precious metals, will give us an addition to the metallic and paper currency in one year, of two hundred and fifty millions of dollars. In contemplating this enormous increase in the representative of wealth, we are lost in wonder and astonishment. We may not for a year or two feel any evil effect of this great annual supply. Prices of property may not be permanently inflated, or the inflation may be so gradual as to have no visible influence, for a considerable time, upon financial and commercial affairs. It must be borne in mind that Australia and California are located in comparatively a new world. We must not lose sight of the fact, that in those countries bordering on the Pacific Ocean, there is a population of five hundred millions of souls, who have been in a dormant state, who have never before had such a field open before them for the extension of their commerce. The capital required to give activity to all the elements of trade such an enormous population is likely to call forth, will absorb all the product of the mines of that section of the world for some time at least. Ultimately, unless something happens to arrest the supply of bullion, there must be a plethora, and then we may look for all those changes which a depreciation in the standard of value is sure to bring about. The effect of such an annual product of gold as we anticipate, will at first be most favorable. It will give activity to every department of industry; it will cover every sea with steamships and clipper ships; it will cover the land with every improvement for communication and transportation; it will build up and extend our cities to their utmost limits; it will put in motion the population of the universal world; it will extend civilization and republicanism, by bringing the people of all nations in contact with each other; it will give an impetus to every description of enterprise that the mind of man can conceive; it will develop the resources of the land and of the sea; it will not only cultivate and adorn the surface of the earth, but it will dive deep into its bowels, and drag forth its mineral wealth; it will do all these, and much more; and when there are no more improvements to make; no more room for the extension of commerce—no more worlds to conquer; when the inhabitants of the globe are brought together as one people, in the most intimate intercourse, commercially, financially, and socially—we may then look for an accumulation of capital; of a surplus supply of that representative of wealth which for ages past has been the recognized standard of value. Then we may look for a derangement in the systems which now regulate the commerce of all nations, for an alteration in values which will revolutionize the existing state of things, and lay the foundation of new principles for the government of the world. An enormous expansion, an immense speculation, an increase in the value of property nominally, must follow, which will put out of joint all present ideas of finance. The relative position of property will be changed—public securities will appreciate and depreciate according to the sources of income. It is, however, to be hoped, that we may slide into the new order of things so gradually as to be hardly perceptible to those engaged in the commercial and financial operations of the day.

2.—COFFEE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES, 1851-'2.

We published an elaborate history of coffee and the coffee trade in vol. ii. of the Review, and have since added many annual statistics under the New-Orleans head. We add the following from the New-York Shipping-List:

Received.	*Total Packages.* 1851.	1850.	*Stock, Jan. 1.* 1852.	1851.	*Exported.* 1851.	1850.	*Value 1st January.* 1852.	1851.
At New-York.								
From foreign ports	529686	321112	93500	16000	23708	45711		
At Boston.								
St. Domingo	71,969						8 a 8½	10½ a 10¾
Java	61,014						10½ a 11¼	11½ a 12¾
Brazil	13,343						7½ a 8¾	11 a 12
Other foreign	13,247						—	—
	159573	125881	39000	6000	22998	28536		
At Philadelphia.								
Laguayra	32,168						8 a 9½	9¾ a 11¾
Brazil	76,043						8 a 9	10½ a 11½
Other foreign	15,043						—	—
	123254	100261	18500	none	6063	6088		
At Baltimore.								
Brazil	266,240						8½ a 9½	— a 10¾
Laguayra, &c.	21,081						8¾ a 9	10¾ a 10¾
Other foreign	17,872							
	305183	184630	28000	26000	2945	6778		
At New-Orleans.								
Brazil	335,096						7¾ a 8½	10½ a 10¾
Cuba, &c.	7,672						—	9½ a 9¾
	342768	295397	92600	31000	71	4006		
At other ports	49566	27295	8100	4185	—	—		
Total	1503040	1054576	272700	83185	55785	91119		

		Bags.
Total packages received in 1851		585,017
Add stock, Jan. 1, 1851		16,000
Total supply		601,017
Deduct export	23,708	
Add stock, Jan. 1, 1852	93,500—	117,208
Taken from this port for consumption in 1851		483,809
Or about 66,714,430 lbs.		
Total packages received in 1850		382,986
Add stock, January 1, 1850		36,000
Total supply		418,986
Deduct export	45,711	
Add stock, Jan. 1, 1851	16,000—	61,711
Taken from this port for consumption in 1850		357,275
Or about 43,589,400 lbs.		

		Pkgs.
Receipts in the United States in 1850		1,503,040
Add stock, 1st Jan., 1850		83,185
Total supply		1,586,225
Deduct exports in 1851	55,785	
Add stock, 1st Jan., 1852	272,700—	328,485
Taken for consumption in 1851		1,257,740
Or about 184,721,460 lbs.		
Receipts in United States in 1850		1,054,576
Add stock, 1st Jan, 1850		101,900
Total supply		1,156,476
Deduct exports in 1850	91,119	
Add stock, 1st Jan., 1851	83,185—	174,304
Taken for consumption in 1850		982,172
Or about 134,589,736 lbs.		

Import at New-York, from foreign and coastwise ports:

	Foreign and Coastwise Ports.	Exports.	Stock, Dec. 31.
1850	bags 382,986	45,711	16,000
1849	401,075	49,060	36,000
1848	418,003	31,594	24,000
1847	427,470	18,116	21,000

NOTE.—The estimated consumption of the country for 1851, it will be seen, is about equal to 36½ p. cent. over that of 1850—but it will be remembered that the importation of 1850 was much smaller than that of several previous years; that prices in 1850 ruled high, and the consumption was in a great degree limited, substitutes being used to a considerable extent, and at the close of that year the stock held by dealers was nearly exhausted. The stock at the present in dealers hands, throughout the country, is generally estimated to be above the average.

RECAPITULATION.

CONSUMPTION ESTIMATES.

Taken from New-York	lbs. 59,363,030
" " Baltimore	46,449,470
" " New-Orleans	45,128,960
" " Philadelphia	14,031,560
" " Boston	12,684,340
" " Other Ports	7,064,160
Total	184,721,460

In the above estimate of consumption, we have not included the coastwise receipts at the ports, they being already embraced in the calculation at the port where they were originally received.

STOCK, 1st JANUARY, 1852.

At New-York, of Brazil...bags	43,000
" Java.....pockets, &c.	27,500
" Laguayra and Maracaibo...bags	18,000
" Other kinds..pkgs.	5,000
Total at New-York...pkgs.	93,500
New-Orleans—Brazil	92,600
Baltimore—Brazil	28,000
Philadelphia—(mostly) Brazil	18,500
Boston—(mostly) Java, in pockets	32,000
Other Ports—(mostly) Brazil	8,100
Total...pkgs.	272,700

3.—TOBACCO TRADE OF ST. LOUIS.

This article, justly estimated as one of the most important and valuable productions of the West, has, within comparatively a few years past, become one of the chief sources of the agricultural wealth to our state. The rude and careless mode of its culture, and the rough and unmerchantable style of its preparation, for both domestic and foreign markets—arising alike from the ignorance of the planter of the adaptability of the soil to its growth, and the necessary precautions required for security and protection from the sudden changes of climate as well as the lack of the experience and proper facilities requisite for its safe preparation and transportation to market, have been greatly improved.

This may be attributed chiefly to the emigration to our state of practical planters from the older tobacco-growing states of Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee, and the introduction of the agents and capital of regular eastern dealers, who, in conducting their operations, have stipulated with the planter from year to year, in making their purchases by contract, for the delivery of the article, in improved order and condition, with attention to its assortment as to color, quality, and length, consequently enhancing its value to the purchaser, and adding much to the returns of the producer, as the fruits of his labor. Owing, in a great measure, to these improvements, as well as to the fact of the actual improvement in the quality of the tobacco, arising from the repeated succession of crops upon the same land, tending to deprive the soil of much of that strength which caused a too rapid and luxuriant growth of the plant, rendering it coarse in texture and bitter in taste, may be attributed the removal of that prejudice which has attached to the Missouri tobacco, in former years, and the acquisition of a better reputation, in its variety of qualities, suitable alike for stemming, manufacturing, and smoking.

To the experienced dealer and judge of the article, it is no assumption to state, that Missouri tobacco, in its distinct quality of manufacturing, is superior to the production of any other state, save Virginia, and that the day is not far distant when it will even rank, side by side, with the deservedly reputed growth of her soil. As an evidence of this fact, the tobacco manufacturers of Ohio and Kentucky, and indeed all situated on the Ohio River, as far distant as Pittsburgh, seek their supplies of the raw material, in person, or by order, from the crops of our state, and thus become competitors of our own manufacturers, in their selections at the daily market in St. Louis.

There have also been shipments, to some extent, of this quality of tobacco, to Virginia direct, to supply, in part, the deficiency existing in the manufacturing grades of their own short and inferior crop of last season—which were better appreciated than the shipments hence in former seasons.

As a shipping article, it is only necessary to refer to the foreign reports and classification of what is termed "Western Tobacco," in the London and Liverpool markets, to ascertain that Missouri tobacco is fast vieing with the quality and reputation of Kentucky tobacco—a tobacco, which stands higher in character, for the various purposes to which it is appropriated in foreign countries, than any other raised on our continent.

The average production of tobacco in the state, for a period embracing the past five years, has been 10,800 hhds., and during that time it has neither materially increased or decreased upon the crops of former years. The chief causes which have operated to prevent an increased production, have been the withdrawal of valuable labor from the crops by the "California emigration," which has been principally amongst that class of our population, in the interior, who had cultivated the article extensively, and the diversion of much of the remaining labor bestowed on this crop, to the more profitable cultivation of hemp, upon the same lands before appropriated to the raising of tobacco, which the experience of farmers taught them, had admirably adapted them to its cultivation.

The territory best suited to the cultivation of tobacco in the state, and to which its production is mainly confined, is embraced in the counties of Chariton, Howard, Franklin, Calloway, Lincoln, Randolph, Pike, Macon and Monroe.

The following carefully prepared table will show the annual receipts of tobacco, in hogsheads, at the port of St. Louis, for the past five years, as well as the different descriptions shipped each year from all the important points on the Missouri and Mississippi rivers:

The annual receipts of Tobacco, in hogsheads, at the port of St. Louis, for the past five years:

	1847.				1848.				1849.			
FROM	*Whole shipment.*	*Strips.*	*Leaf.*	*Lugs.*	*Whole shipment.*	*Strips.*	*Leaf.*	*Lugs.*	*Whole shipment.*	*Strips.*	*Leaf.*	*Lugs.*
Camden	534	329	80	125	435	50	310	75	378	200	124	54
Brunswick	913	455	290	168	1325	650	415	260	946	645	80	221
Kytesville	399	320	—	79	617	360	90	167	411	295	—	116
Glasgow	5867	1182	3615	1070	4784	914	2903	967	5230	1280	3006	944
Rocheport*	425	215	97	113	382	161	132	89	373	196	86	95
Providence	48	—	32	16	128	—	85	43	301	—	193	108
Portland	442	—	332	110	345	—	259	86	639	2	451	186
Hannibal	850	315	300	235	800	320	290	190	900	390	310	200
Other points.†	1537	—	1025	512	228	—	152	76	3668	—	2445	1223
	11015	2816	5771	2428	9044	2455	4636	1953	12846	3004	6695	3147

	1850.				1851.				
FROM	*Whole shipment.*	*Strips.*	*Leaf.*	*Lugs.*	*Whole shipment.*	*Strips.*	*Leaf.*	*Lugs.*	*Stems.*
Camden	268	195	35	32	284	196	34	54	20
Brunswick	827	560	100	167	1016	438	290	288	..
Kytesville	572	413	—	159	231	132	27	72	..
Glasgow	4316	1010	2514	792	3264	1600	1010	654	..
Rocheport*	450	242	87	121	326	174	65	87	..
Providence	80	30	19	31	164	50	93	41	..
Portland	428	—	286	142	546	—	330	226	..
Hannibal	550	210	225	115	1000	375	310	190	125
Other p'ts†	1731	—	1154	577	4187	—	2792	1395	..
	9216	2660	4420	2136	11038	2965	4941	3007	145

Tobacco inspection in St Louis for the past five years:

	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Planters' Warehouse	3,854	3,184	4,982	4,186	4,247
State Warehouse	1,235	1,083	867	62	851
	5,089	4,267	5,849	4,248	5,098

By reference to the annexed table, it will be seen that the average proportion of strips, annually for the past five years, has been 2,800 hogsheads, worth at an average price, on board steamboat, of $8 per 100 lbs., for same time, $291,200. Of leaf, there has been an average of 5,300 hogsheads, at an average price of $4 50 per 100 lbs., worth $330,900. Of lugs, there has been an annual average of 2,500 hhds., worth $2 25, average price, $84,375—or the whole average crop, strips, leaf, and lugs, may be estimated as worth annually $709,475.

The manufacture of tobacco, previous to the year 1847, in this state, was but in its infancy, there being but six or seven factories in the state engaged in this department of the business, two of them located in this city and four in the town of Glasgow. Since this date, there has been a regular gradual increase throughout the state, till within the last year, when the quantity manufactured has been nearly three-fold that of any previous year; particularly has this been the case in St. Louis, as will be shown by the annexed table.

Owing to the increase in the manufacture of this article in the state, from the daily improvement in the facilities for the purpose, and the consequent low prices at which it could he afforded to the trade, there has been an almost entire exclusion, during the past year, of Virginia, and other foreign tobacco, which had heretofore chiefly supplied our market. From the low price at which the raw material has already opened the present season, with the extensive preparations made for its manufacture in this city and throughout the state, we may argue a continued exclusion of foreign tobacco from our market, and a trade at home for a large portion of the yield of our manufactories, at remunerating prices. Thus, the tribute paid for the transportation upon our own cultivation, to distant points without the state, and the additional tax for its manufacture and return to our market for sale, as well as the profit paid to the producer and manufacturer of the article, in other states, will henceforth be saved to us, and enter, as a valuable item, into the sources of our wealth.

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* Supposed to be.

† Other points—Richland, Cambridge, Lexington, Weston, Bluffport, Franklin, Herman, Washington, Nashville, Cote Sans Desseines, Brown's Landing, &c.

Number of boxes of manufactured Tobacco in the state, for the past five years :

	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	
St. Louis....	1,850....	2,000....	2,386....	3,974....	8,335..	Bxs. av. wt. 180 lbs.
Glasgow.....	3,682....	4,834....	4,047....	4,316....	5,218..	" " " 135 lbs.
Other points..	127....	378....	634....	475....	1,612..	" " " 130 lbs.
	5,659	7,212	7,067	8,765	15,165	

At an average of seven boxes to the hogshead, the manufacture of 1851 consumed 2,166 hogsheads of tobacco; and at an average of $15 per box, or 13 cents per lb., the 15,165 boxes manufactured in 1851, are worth $227,425. Deducting the manufacture of 1851, say 2,166 hogsheads, from the receipts of that year, and we have 8,872 hogsheads as the quantity exported.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1. Florida.—A company has been organized of influential Georgians, and New-York and Washington capitalists, for the construction of a rail-road across the upper portion of the peninsula of Florida from the port of Brunswick, in Georgia, to the city of Pensacola. A charter was some years ago granted to Brunswick for a canal to the Altamaha River, which has been bought up by a New-York company, together with a large part of Brunswick, and the canal, it is thought, will be opened by the first of January next. No better port than that of Brunswick can be found in all the southern Atlantic coasts, and vessels of every size may at all times reach its wharves. The character of the other terminus for the proposed rail-road, Pensacola, as a harbor, is universally understood, and the total length (exclusive of proposed branches to Tallahassee and Albany, on the Flint River) will be 200 miles—cost, $1,500,000. The work will be completed in five years. Says the Georgia Telegraph :—

"Let a connection of the rail-roads of Georgia with the Gulf be made, and the whole southern country will not only be placed in closer proximity to the West Indies, South America, Mexico, and our own rich possessions on the Pacific, but the monopoly, by the North, of the commerce and travel to the Pacific will be broken up, and a large portion of it secured to our own cities on the Gulf and South Atlantic coast. Let a rail-road be finished from Brunswick to Pensacola, and steam-ships be started from the former place to New-York, and from the latter, via New-Orleans and Havana to Chagres or Tehuantepec, and the route even from New-York to San Francisco will be shortened a whole week, or more, in time, and between the southern and western states and San Francisco, there will be a saving of more than two weeks in time, and a large sum in money."

2. Tennessee.—The last legislature passed two important acts: The first to regulate county subscriptions for rail-roads. The county court may take the sense of the *legal voters* of the county, whether a subscription shall be made or not—provided the money be spent in the county. The tax to belevied upon the taxable property, privileges and persons by law liable to taxation in the county. Not more than 33 per cent. shall be collected in one year. Payers of the tax receive certificates which may be traded or assigned, and are receivable for freight or passage upon roads, &c. They constitute stock in the company. County bonds may be issued redeemable out of the taxes, &c. This act is much wider in its scope than the one lately passed in Louisiana. The other act to which we referred establishes a system of internal improvements in the state, by granting aid to the extent of $8,000 per mile to each of a number of rail-road companies. The bonds of the state are to be issued for that amount as soon as thirty miles are in every respect completed and prepared for the iron. The road must be free from debt. The bonds to bear six per cent., payable semi-annually, and not to have more than 40, or less than 30, years to run. The issuance of bonds gives to the state the highest lien upon the road. On the completion of other sections of 20 miles each, bonds as above will be issued to the companies. On failure to meet the interest on the bonds, the governor shall order the sheriff, &c., to take possession of the road, and administer it in the name and right of the state, until the interest is paid, or the courts shall order sale of the road, &c. Five years after completion of the road the companies shall set apart one per cent. per annum on the amount of bonds to be

used in the purchase of the bonds of the State of Tennessee, receiving credit for the same. No road can receive state aid unless it shall complete 30 miles within the next four years.

The following is the list of roads embraced within the schedule, but there are a great many provisions, limitations, &c., in regard to routes, which we have not space to include here:

The provisions of this act shall extend to and embrace the Chattanooga, Harrison, Georgetown and Charleston Rail-road Company, the Nashville and North Western Rail-road Company, the Louisville and Nashville Rail-road Company, the South Western Rail-road Company, the McMinnville and Manchester Rail-road Company, the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road Company, the Nashville and Southern Rail-road Company, the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road Company, the Nashville and Memphis Rail-road Company, the Nashville and Cincinnati Rail-road Company, the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road Company, the Memphis, Clarksville and Louisville Rail-road Company, and the Winchester and Alabama Rail-road Company, so far as the main trunk roads to be constructed by said companies lie within the limits of this state and not otherwise; and said companies shall have all the powers and privileges, and be subject to all the restrictions and liabilities contained in this act. *Provided*, that this act shall not extend to or embrace more of the road proposed to be built by the Memphis, Clarksville and Louisville Rail-road Company, than that part which lies between the Kentucky line and the Nashville and North Western Rail-road, or the Nashville and Memphis Rail-road. *And provided further*, That this act shall not extend to or embrace the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road Company, unless said company shall extend the road so as to form a junction with the East Tennessee and Virginia Rail-road at Knoxville; and in the event said company fail or refuse so to extend their said rail-road to make said junction, then all the rights, powers and privileges, with the restrictions and liabilities of this act, shall extend to any company that may be hereafter chartered for the purpose of building a rail-road to make said connection; and in no event shall the provisions of this act extend to or embrace more of the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road than that part which lies between Blair's Ferry and the city of Knoxville. *And provided*, That any line now existing on the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road shall not prevent the issuance of bonds for its benefit as herein provided, but the affidavits required in the first section of this act shall be deemed sufficient as applicable to said company, if it is stated in said affidavits that no lien has been created on said road since the passage of this act.

3. LOUISIANA] RAIL-ROADS.—The late act of the legislature for the organization of corporations for works of public improvement and utility, is based upon very liberal principles, and is a great step in advance of our past policy. Under this act, charters have been framed for the Jackson and Opelousas Rail-road Companies, which have both been organized.

Jackson Rail-road Company—Officers—President, James Robb; *Directors*—James Robb, A. D. Kelly, J. P. Benjamin, J. P. Harrison, Isadore Labutut, W. S. Campbell, John Slidell, W. P. Converse, E. W. Moise, Emile La Sere, H. S. Buckner, Charles Pride.

We extract the first five provisions of the charter—

1. The said corporation shall be called the "New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Rail-road Company," and its domicil is fixed in the city of New-Orleans.

2. The said corporation is established for the purpose of constructing, working and maintaining a rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, in the State of Mississippi, thence northward, through the State of Mississippi, towards the point that shall be deemed most favorable for continuing the communication to Nashville, in the State of Tennessee. The road to be made on such a scale as shall serve for the main trunk of a continuous line of communication between New-Orleans and the northern and western portions of the confederacy.

3. The capital stock of the company is fixed at three millions of dollars, divided into one hundred and twenty thousand shares of twenty-five dollars each. A payment of five per cent. on the amount of each share shall be made at the time of subscribing. The subsequent payments shall be made in such sums, and at such periods, as shall be fixed by the Board of Directors; *provided*, that no call shall be made for more than ten per cent. at one time, and that sixty days' notice of each call shall be given, by publication in two newspapers in New-Orleans and two in Mississippi. Not more than three calls shall be made in any one year.

4. The said corporation shall go into operation and be organized, so soon as shares of stock to the amount of three hundred thousand dollars shall have been subscribed.

5. The business of the corporation shall be conducted at its domicil, in the city of New-Orleans, by a board composed of eighteen directors, who shall be stockholders, of whom six shall be selected from amongst the stockholders residing in the State of Mississippi. A *quorum* shall consist of at least seven directors. The directors shall elect one of their

body as president of the company, at their first meeting after their election. At all elections by the stockholders at all their meetings, each share shall be entitled to one vote.

Opelousas Rail-road Company.—Officers—Christopher Adams, President; *Directors*—C. Adams, Jr., A. Lanfear, J. Y. de Egana, J. W. Stanton, A. Chiapella, J. D. Denegre. R. B. Sumner, L. J. Sigur, L. Leon Bernard, Gen. A. Declouet, Harvey Hopkins, M. O H. Norton.

The first five provisions of the charter are as follows:—

1. The said corporation shall be called "The New-Orleans, Opelousas and Great Western Rail-road Company," and its domicil is fixed in the city of New-Orleans.

2. The said corporation is established for the purpose of constructing, working and maintaining a rail-road from Algiers, on the opposite bank of the Mississippi River from New-Orleans, and thence westward through or near Thibodaux; thence to Berwick's Bay; crossing which, thence to Washington or near it, on the Courtableu, in the parish of St. Landry, and from thence hereafter to be continued to the point on the Sabine River most favorable for the purpose of continuing said road through the State of Texas to El Paso, on the Rio Grande. The road to be made on such a scale as shall serve for the main trunk of a line of rail-road, as shall form a continuous communication between New-Orleans, Texas and the Pacific States or Territories, and such branches as they may hereafter choose to make.

3. The capital stock of the company is fixed at three millions of dollars, divided into one hundred and twenty thousand shares at twenty-five dollars each. A payment of five per cent. on the amount of each share shall be made at the time of subscribing. The subsequent payments shall be made in such sums and at such periods as shall be fixed by the Board of Directors: Provided, that no call shall be made for more than ten per cent. at one time, and that sixty days' notice of each call shall be given, by publication in one newspaper in New-Orleans, which shall be known to the stockholders as the official paper of the company, and such newspapers as may be designated along the line of the road. Not more than three calls shall be made in this year—the subsequent years, the calls to be fixed by the stockholders at their annual meeting in January, 1853.

4. The said corporation shall go into operation and be organized, so soon as shares to the amount of three hundred thousand dollars shall have been subscribed.

5. The business of the corporation shall be conducted at its domicil, in the city of New-Orleans, by a board composed of eighteen directors, who shall be stockholders. The directors shall elect one of their body as President of the company at their first meeting after their election. A quorum to do business shall consist of at least seven directors. At all elections by the stockholders, at all their meetings, each share shall be entitled to one vote.

4. Tennessee.—A writer in the Nashville Union thus compares the distances on the two routes via Florence and via Lagrange and Holly Springs, to Jackson, Mississippi, there to connect with the New-Orleans road.

Upon the *air line* theory, let us now compare the distance of the respective Florence and Clifton routes to Jackson, Mississippi, which city is peremptorily called for in the charter of the Nashville and New-Orleans Rail-road, starting from Mount Pleasant, the diverging point:

From Mount Pleasant to Florence	60 miles.
From Florence to Tuscumbia (river included)	5 "
From Tuscumbia to Aberdeen (air line)	85 "
From Aberdeen to Jackson (air line)	147 "
	297 miles.

From Mount Pleasant to Lagrange, as above stated	147 miles.
From Lagrange to Holly Springs	30 "
From Holly Springs to Jackson	190 "
	367 miles.
	297 "
	"
Difference in distance	70 miles.

5. Virginia.—We received some time ago, but omitted noticing, from the press of other matters, an address prepared by J. R. Watkins, Esq., to the people of Richmond, on the subject of the Danville Rail-road. The address is ably written, and digests a large quantity of valuable rail-road materiel. The writer concludes as follows:—

"Richmond has a peculiar interest in the Danville road. It is above all others her own road. Who can undertake to say that the great trade of the West and South-west, which she is so eager to obtain, will never go up the valley and through Manassa's Gap, in the direction of Alexandria and Baltimore? Even if it should be brought through the

Blue Ridge tunnel, there is the Gordonsville and Alexandria Road on this side the mountains to carry it away from her. Nor is she safe with it brought to Lynchburg; for there is a scheme on foot for a road from Lynchburg to Charlottesville. To avert the dangers which threaten her interests will require the greatest wisdom, caution and circumspection on the part of her representatives. But she cannot be prevented from becoming a great emporium of *Southern* trade, though rival interests may prevail over her in diverting that of the West and South-west. For the trade of western North Carolina, (a country of immense fertility,) and south side Virginia, she can have no competitor, save perhaps, Petersburg, her Virginia sister, at whose prosperity she should feel no disposition to repine. That noble region she holds in the palm of her hand. She can unite herself to it, if she will, by the strongest ties, social and political, until both shall become identical in interest and in feeling. She can thus acquire a strength which may make her irresistible in the councils of the state. Her present position is critical; no time is to be lost. To achieve an object so important, but one thing is necessary, and that is, for her hotel-keepers, her merchants and other business men, her professional men, and her mechanics, to come forward at once and *subscribe their money*.

6. **Tennessee.**—Mr. Beirne, President of the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road Company, in a late address, and after the refusal of the legislature of Mississippi of the right of way to the company through her counties of Tishimingo and Tippah, except upon conditions which cannot be complied with, speaks as follows:

"It is known to the stockholders, that heretofore purchases were made of the "Memphis and Lagrange Company," and the State of Tennessee, of their interest in the Memphis and Lagrange track, and also the interest of the "Tennessee Valley Rail-road Company," with all its rights and privileges in what was known as the Tuscumbia, Courtland and [Decatur Rail-road; that these roads were made a part of the main trunk of the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road; that iron rails of the most approved T pattern. to the amount of 8,600 tons, were bought for the purpose of constructing these roads. The contracts have been entered into for the purpose of putting them in running order.

It is now announced that the estimated cost of the Lagrange portion, in running order, was found to be $360,000, and the Valley Rail-road $276,000; making the aggregate cost of these ninety-two miles of the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road $636,000; that the grading, cross ties, engines, burden cars, laying the track, &c., contracted for at prices known, insures the completion of that portion of the road within the estimate of the engineer; and the question is confidently asked, where can ninety-two miles of rail-road in the United States, through so productive a country, be built for the same money?

The President of the company takes this medium of informing the stockholders, that, in a recent visit to New-Orleans, bills of lading had been received for over 4,500 tons of iron rails. Two cargoes had arrived—arrangements were made for receiving and forwarding—instructions left with the agents of the company, to forward, as fast as possible, and on the best terms, the iron to Memphis and Tuscumbia; two cargoes of the same have been received at Memphis; and that a meeting of the directors was convened at this place on the 10th instant. The meeting of the board thus convened continued in session from the 10th to the 13th, at 10 P. M., and the President takes infinite pleasure in saying, that, during the deliberations, no directors could have manifested more zeal and greater desire to promote the ultimate success of the enterprise.

At this meeting it was ordered that contracts be entered into for the grading, &c., of that portion of said road from its intersection with the Nashville and Chattanooga Rail-road to Decatur and sections Nos. —— west of Tuscumbia. For all of which bids were made (including the bridge at Decatur) by responsible contractors. That the President direct a survey to be made from Lagrange, Tennessee, to the most suitable point on the Tennessee River in said state, and from a suitable point west of Tuscumbia to the most suitable point on the Tennessee River in the State of Alabama, below obstructions to navigation, and then to ascertain the most practicable way of connecting these two points on the Tennessee River, all of which is to be reported to a future meeting of said board.

It will be perceived that the work for the construction of the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road has commenced in earnest, and all that is wanting is confidence in the ability and punctuality of the company in the successful prosecution of this great enterprise.

7. **Georgia and South Carolina.**—Mr. Whiteside having been deputed by the legislature of Tennessee to present a memorial to the legislature of Georgia on the conflicts which had arisen between the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road Company and the Union Branch Company, of Georgia, thus speaks of the action of the last-named state upon the subject of the bridge across the Savannah River, and of a route from the mountains of Tennessee to Charleston other than by the way of Augusta or Savannah:

A bill was introduced and discussed in the House of Representatives, to authorize a connection of the South Carolina and Georgia Rail-roads at Augusta, and was rejected by a very large majority, for reasons, doubtless, which are set forth in the report of the committee of the House of Representatives, to whom that branch of your memorial was referred.

It may be taken as expressing the decided sentiments of a very large majority of the people of Georgia, and a fixed determination by them never to permit the desired connection—the avowed object being to force the great trade expected from the West to their own seaport at Savannah.

Competition in transportation to the near Atlantic ports, and in trade at the great marts of commerce, are things of immense value to all the great agricultural, manufacturing and commercial interests of Tennessee and the neighboring states of the interior. This competition would ensure low freights and good accommodation on the great thoroughfares, and the highest prices in market for our products. And when we consider the immense amount of exports which we are certain to place on the rail-roads leading to the Atlantic at no distant day, we can form some estimate of the great advantages to result to our people from low rates of transportation, and full prices in a free and extended market for their products.

It would not be extravagant to say, that in a very short time, from the rapid extension of rail-roads which will result from the liberal and enlightened policy which you have just adopted, this want of competition would, in ten years or less, tax the people of our state alone enough to build a line of rail-road from Chattanooga to the Atlantic Ocean.

The tax in the form of tolls and drayage at the Augusta bridge—the damage done to the merchandise and produce, in loading and unloading, from the cars, and exposure while passing from depot to depot—the detention and scattering of stocks, &c., are impediments on the line to Charleston, operating perpetually, to the annoyance and loss of all who adopt it as a commercial highway, wholly incompatible with that rapidity and freedom of intercourse with the Atlantic, so essential to our success in the grand scheme of internal improvements on which we are embarking, and to our prosperity as an agricultural and commercial people.

Taking it, then, for granted that we are, in all time to come, to be forced to the port of Savannah, on lines of rail-road, which are even now unable to accommodate their own local and rapidly-increasing business without ruinous delay, and which will be wholly incompetent for the great increase of trade, which will soon seek a transit between the Atlantic and our own neighboring states,—in view of the great interests at stake, it behooves us to go to work at once with the energy and spirit which characterize the people of the Northern states, and open a direct, unbroken communication by rail-road with the Atlantic at Charleston and Wilmington.

South Carolina has already extended her rail-roads from the coast to the foot of the mountains, and but a short space intervenes between them and our roads in Tennessee.

Recent explorations are believed to establish the fact that, without a tunnel, and on easy grades, a rail-road may be run from Anderson, South Carolina, to a connection with the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road, so as to give a much shorter line from East Tennessee, Kentucky and Ohio, to the ocean, than the one by way of Augusta, and equally as short a one from Chattanooga, the head of the Nashville and Memphis lines of rail-road.

This route has not heretofore attracted the attention it deserves, from a belief that the right of way could never be had from the State of Georgia to pass the most favorable gap in the mountains, which is just within the north-east corner of the state; but at the recent session of her legislature a favorable charter was granted for that purpose, and the way is now open for building the road.

The task of its accomplishment is before us, and must be performed. We owe it to our greatest interests, and we owe it to the successful accomplishment of the great system of rail-roads which your enlightened forecast has decreed, by a pledge of eight millions of dollars of public aid, that it shall soon come into operation among us.

This state aid will call forth even a greater amount of private capital to be invested in these enterprises, and we may soon expect an investment little, if any, short of twenty millions of dollars, depending mainly for a profit, or profitable use, on an easy and expeditious communication with the Atlantic Ocean.

Shall we be confined to the exactions—the monopoly—of a single line of road to a single point of trade, and this road now, in the absence of any rail-road connection at the West, confessedly unable to accommodate the business which is already offered to it? The whole line from Chattanooga to Savannah is blocked, and there is scarcely a warehouse on it that has not freight awaiting transportation, which it is not in the power of the line, or any part of it, to give.

Charleston, with the aim and spirit which prompted her to heavy pledges in former times to reach Cincinnati, and more recently to bestow her treasure, with no niggard hand, for the construction of rail-roads to the Cumberland and Mississippi rivers, will doubtless, to perfect the great system which we are just establishing, aid us in removing this only barrier which intervenes between her and the great West.

The Nashville and Chattanooga Rail-road is verging upon that point where it is to become a great element of power in the prosecution of a direct, unobstructed line to Charleston. That company will be found ready to do its full share when the time for action comes.

The Carolina, North Alabama, North Mississippi, and many of the Kentucky roads, having a direct interest in this line, their co-operation, and that of upper and central South Carolina, may be confidently anticipated.

If the charters already granted by you do not sufficiently provide for this great connection, suitable additional enactments should be made at once, leaving untrammeled, by calls for particular localities or points of connection, the way open for the selection of the best route or routes to be found to the North Carolina line in the direction of Clayton, Georgia, and Anderson, South Carolina.

8. SOUTH CAROLINA.—The people of Charleston, apprehensive of being cut off from the direct route of travel North when the Manchester and Wilmington Road is completed, have obtained a charter, and are now pressing for a rail-road from Charleston, or from any point on the east bank of Cooper River, within three miles of Charleston, to such point on or near the Wilmington and Manchester Rail-road, west of the great Pee Dee, as may be selected; and in case the route which may, on examination, be found most eligible, should not pass by or near the Delta of the Santee and the town of Georgetown, then the company shall be authorized to construct a branch rail-road, or a plank-road to Georgetown. It shall also have authority to construct branch rail-roads or plank-roads in any direction, and to any distance not exceeding twenty-five miles from the main track of the said rail-road.

9. MISSISSIPPI.—*Presuming* that the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road will take the route through Baton Rouge, the Natchez papers are proposing an extension to that city. Would it not be well for Natchez to make a move to induce the company to come this way, as there are two important links in the chain to Jackson already finished or graded? From Bayou Sara to Woodville there is a road already in successful operation, which could be bought out by the New-Orleans and Nashville Company; and from this place to Torrey's store, forty miles, our old road is graded, and can be had by the New-Orleans Company by the mere asking for it. The only two links then to fill up will be from Baton Rouge to Bayou Sara, and from Woodville to this place, which last would be done by the citizens of Wilkinson and Adams counties, without doubt. Natchez alone could take half a million of stock to induce the company to come this way, and the citizens of Wilkinson are as public-spirited as any people in the south-west, and will take as much stock as any other community of the same population along the whole route. In addition to this, the road from Torrey's store to Jackson (which last place the New-Orleans and Nashville Road is obliged to touch) has been once surveyed and marked out, and found to be one of the most eligible in the state for a rail-road, pursuing, as it does, a high level ridge almost the entire distance.

There are other advantages to this route, some of which it may not be amiss to notice. In the first place, it will save forty miles of grading between Baton Rouge and Jackson, and will pass through the richest and most populous portions of western Mississippi. Striking Natchez, it will receive an immense trade, from which it will be cut off if it takes a more easterly direction, and will eventually intercept the trade which is destined to come to Vidalia from the Arkansas and Texas roads, which will certainly be made to the river opposite this place, and that within a few years.

10. GEORGIA.—In a late report of a committee of the Legislature of Georgia upon the Western and Atlantic Rail-road, we find the following upon the importance of the work:

The committee, in the close of their labors, cannot refrain from calling the attention of the legislature to the importance of the Western and Atlantic Rail-road, its position and its prospects. Its northern terminus is in the city of Chattanooga, from which point diverges a system of rail-roads which penetrate every portion of the eastern Mississippi Valley. The East Tennessee Rail-road, leaving our road at Dalton, extends into the fertile valleys of East Tennessee; its continuation forms the Virginia Rail-road, which, tunneling the Alleghany Mountains, joins the extensive system of rail-roads recently planned by the State of Virginia. When this work is finished, there will be an unbroken rail-road track from Washington City to Montgomery, Alabama. Our road will form an important link in this great thoroughfare of trade and travel. On the west, the Nashville and Chattanooga Rail-road Company are overcoming obstacles once considered insurmountable, and are rapidly pushing their work to completion. From some point on this line the Memphis and Charleston Road diverges, and, in a distance little less than three hundred miles, reaches its western terminus on the banks of the Mississippi.

Two lines are spoken of from Nashville—one to Louisville, Kentucky, another to some point on the Mississippi River. From undoubted information, we learn that these two great enterprises will be completed. All these improvements will necessarily become valuable feeders to our state work. The 1,500 miles of navigation furnished by the Tennessee River and its tributaries, concentrate upon Chattanooga an important steam and flat-boat trade. The fertile bottoms drained by these streams produce, in profusion, the staple articles of food so much needed by the planters of Georgia, South Carolina, and Alabama. The other terminus of our road is in the city of Atlanta, from which point rad iate three great lines of railways, which embrace, in their continuations and branches, the whole of Georgia, most of South Carolina, and a portion of Alabama. They also connect the navigable waters of the Gulf with the Atlantic Ocean, dispensing the benefits of cheap and sudden communication for trade and travel to nearly two millions of people. Our state road forms the *only connecting link* between these great rail-road centres—Chattanooga and Atlanta—and no other line can ever be built which will seriously interfere with our monopoly, for the conformation of the country forbids it. Between Norfolk, Va., on the Atlantic, and Mobile on the Gulf, there is no seaport which will not be reached or controlled by the lines diverging from Atlanta. This secures the concentration of the Mississippi Valley trade at that point over our road, to be distributed, by its connecting roads, over this extended section.

11. Arkansas.—We have received an interesting letter from Little Rock, signed "Boston Mountain," which abounds in very judicious suggestions upon the subject of south-western industrial independence, and proposes many appropriate remedies for the depression which has fallen upon us. We can only extract the conclusion of this letter:

"To accomplish this, and even more, all we want is to establish banks as the wants of the country require, upon a mixed stock and specie basis—such as Ohio, New-York, and other states have adopted, and all things else will be added."

12. Texas.—We extract the following from the letter of a very intelligent gentleman at Clarksville, Texas, who was a member of the late Rail-road Convention in New-Orleans:

"I sometimes laugh at the proceedings of our great Rail-road Convention, and the very *appropriateness* of the two great speeches of the session to the objects contemplated —I mean those of Robb and Benjamin. What were they but wholesale attacks upon the constitution of Louisiana, the laws of the state, and the municipality regulations of the city of New-Orleans *in particular*? Now was this not a "*dainty dish*" to serve up to your guests after inviting them to a consultation on rail-roads? But to get back to our Little Rock Convention. Its object is to devise ways and means to finish one road; or, in the language of Mr. Benjamin, it has a "*local object*," the construction and completion of the road recommended by the New-Orleans Convention, beginning at a point on the Mississippi at or near Memphis, and running across the State of Arkansas via Little Rock, to some point on the north-eastern border of this state, now that the road will be built from Memphis to Little Rock, may be said to be a *fixed fact*. If it continues on to this section of country, or reaches Red River at any point above the raft, it will cut off an immense amount of trade and travel from your city. This region is rapidly filling up with a planting population; and the present, or rather the past year, over seventy thousand bags of cotton have been made above the raft. The present season is a fine one to keep up the rail-road excitement. Boats from our landing are charging us $4 a bag for cotton, and $2 50 a barrel for back freight. This is glorious. I hope it will continue. It will, if it does, build the road. For my part, I wish Red River would close up so completely with raft, from Alexandria to Fort Washita, that you could not force an Indian canoe through. Necessity is not only the mother of invention, but also the lash which drives the sloth to the use of those means already invented. As long as we have a kind of "*it will do*" water communication, it is hard to get the people to the trial of any other, especially when it costs money."

13. Georgia.—We have received the annual report, 1852, of the Girard Road, intended to connect Mobile Bay with Columbus, Geo., and thus open uninterrupted travel to the north. Forty miles are under contract, and will perhaps be graded within the year. One hundred hands are engaged on the first twenty-two miles, and the number will be swelled, if possible, to five hundred during the summer. Columbus has subscribed as a corporation $150,000 for iron. Subscriptions payable in grading received to the extent of 170 miles, $491,400. Donations of alternate sections of land are expected from Congress.

14. South Carolina.—*Charleston and Hamburgh Road.*—We extract from the report of the president, Mr. Conner, for 1852.

Dividends declared since 1844.

1844	dividends	cash	5 per cent.	1848	dividends	cash	2½ per ct.
1845	"	"	5 2-3 "	1849	"	"	4 "
1846	"	"	5¼ "	1850	"	"	6 "
1847	"	partly scrip	5 83-100	1851	"	"	7 "

	Passengers.	Amount.	Up and down. Amount.	Total Receipts.	Bales of cotton.	Barrels of flour.	Bushels of grain.	Barrels of turpentine.
1844	54,146	176,591.58	312,547.37	532,869.95	186,638	..	..	..
1845	56,785	170,862.91	342,316.71	558,697.71	197,657	..	..	..
1846	64,136	189,644.87	351,689.92	589.081.52	186,271	12,148	2,369	48
1847	77,579	222,148.93	387,634.00	655,275.30	134,302	19,043	338,848	3,129
1848	75,149	221,363.59	535,594.56	800,073.54	274,364	15,447	203,485	5,753
1949	92,713	223,325.42	621,990.32	892,403.16	339,999	1,507	66,904	13,919
1850	117,351	272,383.37	593,356.78	912,720.25	284,935	125	14,515	9,683
1851	128,590	287,341.60	664,164.03	1,000,717.98	287,590	526	547	4,198

15. **Texas.**—We have received a private letter from Henderson, Rusk county, Texas, in which the author speculates with much intelligence upon the importance of the proposed road from our city into that region. We can only offer one extract from the letter:

"Cotton could be grown at moderately remunerating prices, where now at the low rates to which it is tending, and at rates of previous years, it can hardly, adding cost of hauling, be made a profitable culture. The cost of hauling at this distance from Red River is about $5 per bale; add $1 25 for freight, storage and commissions for shipping, and the outlay is about $6 25 each bale to get it to market; whereas, a rail-road could convey the same article at about $1 to $1 25 per bale more expeditiously, at less risk, and meet a market at any precise period desired. The same rule would hold good in the transmission of cattle, saving by a large amount in the weight, and the better condition of the beef, as well as the hazard and loss at present attending their conveyance. Other articles would largely enter into the list of productions, such as sheep, poultry, mules, horses, corn, hides, pelts, &c., besides the greatly increasing product of our western wheat, which is grown with a greater yield than in New-York or Virginia, of a quality nowhere inferior.'

16. **Southern and Western Railway Connection.**—The Knoxville Register publishes an address to the States of Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, and North Carolina, proposing a great rail-road convention to be held at Knoxville, Tenn., during the month of August, to revive the old project of a south Atlantic sea-board connection with the cities of Cincinnati and Louisville, via Knoxville. The world has never presented such examples of great enterprises as are now developing themselves in all parts of our ocean-bound republic; and from present appearances, the list of gigantic projects of internal improvements is to be much enlarged. Within the next ten years there will probably be from three to five great and continuous lines of railway running from the great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, and twice as many more running from the Atlantic sea-board to the Mississippi River, and probably we shall also have in rapid construction a single great line from the Mississippi River to the Pacific shore. There is room enough for all. The intersection of these great backbone and rib lines of railway promises to employ the capital and energy of the country to a very considerable extent; and as these enterprises are mostly of a healthy character, we welcome them. We trust that the above convention will be well attended.

17. **Virginia Public Works.**—The Board of Public Works of Virginia have made their report to the legislature, showing the great interest which has been awakened in that state within a few years, in regard to works of internal improvement. The annexed table presents a condensed view of rail-road progress in the state, together with the interest of the state in their capital stock.

	Miles in length.	Miles complet'd.	Miles in progress.
Appomattox R. R. (late City Point)	9	9	—
Clover Hill Rail-road	11½	11½	—
Blue Ridge Rail-road	16¼	—	16¼
Greenville and Roanoke Rail-road	21	21	—
Manassa's Gap Rail-road	103	—	60
Orange and Alexandria Rail-road (including branch)	98	30	38
Petersburg and Roanoke Rail-road	60	60	—
Richmond and Petersburg Rail-road	22	22	—
Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Rail-road	76½	76½	—
South-side Rail-road	122	30	75
Tuckahoe and James River Rail-road	4¼	4¼	—
Seaboard and Roanoke Rail-road	95	80	15
Virginia and Central Rail-road (to Covington)	195	105	90
Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road	209	50	100
Winchester and Potomac Rail-road	32	32	—
Richmond and Danville Rail-road	147	46	101
Northwestern Rail-road	100	—	—
Baltimore and Ohio (in Virginia)	240	99	141

Length of Rail-roads in Virginia........................ 1,602¼ miles.
" " " completed................ 676 "
" " " in progress.............. 366¼ "
Capital stock (leaving out Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road) $116,117,100 00
State interest..7,364,433 33

Besides these rail-roads, Virginia has about 872 miles in length of the most capacious and substantially-constructed canals in the Union.

18. **Mobile and Ohio Rail-road.**—From a late report of the Company, made to the stockholders, we extract the following:

"Summing up, in conclusion, the resources which have been accumulated by the Company to this time, and arranging them in a tabular form, we have the following result:

Road complete, in working order to Citronelle, 33 miles, including equipment—also, cost of all surveys, locating line, &c., paid for by Mobile subscriptions, say	500,000
Mobile 2 per cent. tax*	1,100,000
Subscriptions in Mississippi, private and county, per previous statement	1,075,733
Lands donated by Congress, as per estimate	3,872,854
Total	$6,548,587

"The lands included in this estimate, to be made most available to the stockholders, should be withheld from sale until after the completion of the road, when they will have attained a higher value. They are now, however, at the disposal of the Board, to be offered in security for a loan of five millions to furnish the superstructure and equipment, whenever the amount necessary to complete the local work shall be fully made up. With the spirit now prevailing along the line, it is believed that the deficiency at present existing can be provided for during the coming spring and summer. Should these expectations be realized, the remainder of the road can be put under contract immediately after, from Pontotoc to the Ohio River, for graduation, &c. The Board entertain no apprehensions, that with the securities which they will then be prepared to offer, any difficulty will occur in negotiating the loan desired upon very favorable terms. This accomplished, they will be enabled to prosecute the work of construction simultaneously at different points of the line, and finally unite the Gulf of Mexico with the Ohio River by railway within the next three or four years.

19. **Rail-roads and Population.**—The general law that rail-roads having their termini in cities, is one of the most powerful elements in the increase of population, is so well understood, that any elaborate explanation of the fact would be deemed superfluous. Everybody knows that rail-roads augment business, compensate labor, give enhanced value to property, and as an inevitable consequence, attract population. If our readers desire some valuable practical illustrations of the operations of this law, let them con with attention the subjoined article. It is from an Ohio paper—the Dayton Gazette—and it is peculiarly interesting to the people of this vicinity, because New-Orleans furnishes the writer a signal example of the evils which have followed the neglect of this great principle of social economy; and because the facts cited in the article are admirably calculated to stimulate the zeal and enterprise of our city, so recently manifested in behalf of projects of internal improvement. We give the article in place of any crude speculations of our own, in the confident belief that we could not occupy our space with arguments more pregnant with truth, and more suggestive of wise counsel for the future.

Growth of Cities—The recent United States census exhibits many interesting facts respecting the increase of the principal centres of population. We subjoin the population of a few of the larger cities, as shown by the census of 1800 and of 1850.

	1800.	1850.
St. Louis	2,000	80,000
Cincinnati	750 (about)	125,000
New-Orleans	8,000	125,000
New-York	63,000	650,000
Pittsburgh	1,565	83,000
Boston	38,000	212,000
Philadelphia	73,000	450,000

Looking at the increase of these cities for fifty successive years, we readily find the time required for duplication, which is nearly as follows:

St. Louis	9½ years.
New-Orleans	12 "
Pittsburgh	9 "
Philadelphia	20 "
Cincinnati	6½ "
New-York	14½ "
Boston	23 "

But this estimate does not fairly show the true law of growth of the places. New agencies have been called into service within that period, which tend more powerfully to centralize population than any influences known at the commencement of the nineteenth century—steamboats, railways, telegraphs, coal and iron mines, &c. All these and many other agencies have given a momentum to this aggregation of population, which has been wonderful during the last decennial period. It is interesting also to note the various changes in the relative increase of cities for several successive decades since 1800. One place shows a decreased ratio of growth, another an acceleration without a parallel in history. And these relative changes are not factitious, but depend upon laws which are certain in their operation. Thus, New-Orleans, which in its early history doubled its population in twelve years, would not now duplicate in less than thirty-four years. Boston, half a-century ago, doubled its population in twenty-three years, but now it will duplicate it in twelve and a-half years. Alexandria, Va., once required fifty years for a duplication, but at its present ratio of increase it would require 400 years. Worcester, Mass., once only duplicated in twenty-one years, but now it will require but nine and a-half years.

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* Annually for five years, or 10 per cent. on the value of real estate.—Ed.

Let us examine, a moment, the causes of these results. New-Orleans has depended upon commerce alone for her prosperity. Thirty years ago she had no competitor to disturb her inland trade. She was the grand depot of nearly all the trade of the Mississippi valley. Her growth would, of course, be rapid. But during more than forty years, she has brought to her assistance no new element of growth—no rail-roads of consequence, no manufactories. Other cities have sprung up, and by means of rail-roads, canals, &c., have entered into a keen competition with her for the purchase and transportation of the products of the Mississippi valley. Thus, during the last season, much of the tobacco which was formerly landed in New-Orleans, and re-shipped, was purchased and shipped, via Cincinnati and Buffalo, to New-York. At the same time, New-Orleans has depended upon her keen competitors for the simplest articles of manufacture. The reason of this decrease in prosperity is obvious.

Boston furnishes another illustration. Her commercial position is not as favorable as that of New-Orleans. When she depended upon commerce alone, her population duplicated but once in twenty-three years.' Now, when she has made the whole Union tributary to her, by her vast system of rail-roads, and sends her manufactured articles to all climes, the ratio of her growth will double her population in 14½ years. Now, let us place these figures side by side:

	1800.	1850.
New-Orleans	12 years.	34 years.
Boston	23 "	12½ "

Here then is a complete reversal of the law of growth, consequent upon causes so plain that he that runs may read.

Taking the ratio of increase of various cities from 1840 to 1850, we find the time required for the duplication nearly as follows:

Milwaukie	3 years.	Marietta	7 years.
Chicago	3½ "	Indianapolis	7½ "
St. Louis	4 "	Pittsburgh	8 "
Manchester.	4 "	Dayton	8 "
Toledo	6 "	New-Albany	8 "
Cleveland	6 "	Buffalo	8½ "
Cincinnati	6 "	Detroit	9 "
Columbus	6 "	Louisville	9½ "

The following are the western cities, with one exception, and the ratio of growth is greater than that of any other cities in the world. If these deductions approach to accuracy, and we believe they do, St. Louis, which, in 1850, had a population of 80,000, will, in four years from the date of that census, have a population of 160,000. Cincinnati will have 250,000 long before the next decennial period; and Chicago, at the commencement of the year 1854, will contain not less than 60,000. We cannot but think that real investments in such places will pay beyond any other. A man of moderate means may grow rich while he sleeps. But let us see how this law of growth is to affect other cities of the Union.

	Time of Duplication.		*Time of Duplication.*
New-York	12 years.	Boston	12½ years.
Philadelphia	12½ "	Rochester	12 "
Washington	12 "	Baltimore	13½ "
Richmond	14½ "	Albany	16½ "

Here is another class of cities which we conclude are built and "finished:"

Charleston	35 years.	Newport	65 years.
Natchez	85 "	Poughkeepsie	90 "
Hudson	100 "	Carlisle, Penn	130 "

MISCELLANEOUS.

1.—SOMETHING BETTER FOR THE SOUTH THAN THE FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW.

SEVERAL years ago, when the new constitution of Kentucky was under discussion, and when the slavery agitations were at their height in Congress, a gentleman in Kentucky prepared an ingenious plan for the security of the institution of slavery, which he called the "Ohio River Plan." and which he now furnishes us for publication. Perhaps, in some future day, when the "Compromise" shall cease to be a "finality," which God forfend, and we shall be driven to look about again for security, the Ohio River Plan may receive attention. It has this merit, at least, that Mr. Calhoun, in a letter which we have seen, and which has been left in our possession, speaks of it as "well calculated to test the sincerity of the adjacent non-slaveholding states. If they acquiesced, it would give them a population they utterly detest; and if not, it would expose their hypocrisy. It might thus put an end to the question about fugitive slaves, and is, perhaps, under the circumstances, the only way that an end could be put to it." He adds, however—"But I do not think it would reach the radical cause of abolition, nor stop its agitation. That lies deeper. It has its root partly in fanaticism and partly in the lust of power, which nothing but the united opposition and resolve of the South can successfully resist short of dissolving all political connection with them." This letter was written in 1849.—[EDITOR.

THE OHIO RIVER PLAN.

The time has come when it is useless to put off the consideration of this momentous question. Whether a law of emancipation be a part of the new constitution of Kentucky or not, the cause of the abolition of negro slavery has got so great a headway that it will be found impossible, by any ordinary means, to stay its onward progress to rule or ruin. Nothing short of such a plan as is here proposed can settle the question. My plan has one characteristic which is peculiar to it. It is unlike all others. Some will smile when they read it; others will laugh outright; some emancipationists will be delighted with it; some will abuse the man who concocted it. So will it be, *pro* and *con*, with the *pro*-slavery men. The abolitionists have been fighing for my plan all their lives, but I am afraid they will find the most fault with it. It will please and displease more men than any other plan ever proposed. It will do one of two things; it will either be the means of abolishing slavery, or it will kill abolition in the United States stone dead.

It will be a sure test of the philanthropy and action from principle of the abolition school everywhere. It will settle the question beyond dispute as to what is the best condition in which the negro race can be placed. It will also determine which he prefers. It obviates the great objection in the slave states to all plans of emancipation hitherto proposed; the negroes who become free are not to be sent to Africa; they will remove from the slave states, but their removal will not be attended with any expense to the citizens of Kentucky. If the negro slave becomes free his master has to lose his value, but there is an end to the matter; he is gone, and there is no further trouble. My plan is voluntary, but not compulsory. It is not prospective, but immediate. The negroes in Kentucky who become free are to be colonized in Ohio; Indiana and Illinois may have a portion of them, but Ohio is to be the home of the vast majority. We prefer this for various reasons: the climate of Ohio is very mild, and it is a more healthful country than Indiana and Illinois, and the Ohio people have always showed more sympathy for us than the citizens of either Indiana or Illinois have done. Virginia and Maryland, if they adopt my plan, can colonize in Pennsylvania, New-York, and New-England. Time must determine for the rest.

The plan is this: The first article in the constitution of Kentucky, on the subject of slavery, shall declare that negro slavery is perpetual in Kentucky, or until a new constitution is formed. The second article shall enact that every negro slave who escapes from this state across the Ohio River, shall be free to all intents and purposes, so far as the master in Kentucky has any right to him; provided he is not brought back by the people of Ohio, Indiana, or Illinois. In that case the negro so brought back, shall again become the property of his former master. The spirit of the law proposed, is this, that whenever a negro or mulatto enters Kentucky, he becomes *ipso facto* a slave; whenever he escapes out of Kentucky, by way of the Ohio River, he becomes *ipso facto* a free man. We confer a great honor upon Ohio; and all the dishonor we take upon ourselves. The people of Ohio may object, however, to the law proposed, but they can't help themselves, except in one way; but as abolitionists, they can't object, for their creed is, that when we know what is a man's duty, we ought to *make him* perform it. If they do not want the Kentucky negroes to be free, they must become like unto those who carry on the slave-trade with Africa; when the slave reaches the soil of Ohio then he is a free man; would they make freemen slaves by returning them to bondage? When once the slave, who escapes into Ohio, knows that he has no "enemy in his rear," it will be impossible to push him on into Canada. The present state of things is this: when a slave escapes into Ohio he is received with all the rights of hospitality, but is soon told, you are not safe here, your former master will pursue you, and you may be carried back to a more oppressive bondage than ever; you must go to Canada, we will help you off with all possible speed; but do not forget for a moment that you are not safe till you reach British soil. But let the negro once know that Ohio soil is as safe and as free to him as British soil, and you had as well whistle to the wind as to try to budge him.

It is perfectly clear, that under this plan the state of Ohio must either allow Kentucky to colonize her slaves within her borders, or she must keep them out, or return them to slavery. Suppose that their great benevolence and philanthropy determine them to adopt the first alternative, then the *great* difficulty in the way of emancipation, or rather abolition, the removal of them and a home for them, is at once obviated. Ohio opens her doors; no expense is incurred in the removal of the negro; his feelings and affections are not outraged; he is still a citizen of the United States; he lives near his former friends and relatives, with whom he can correspond, and he is not expatriated to either an extremely hot or extremely cold climate; and it will be optionary with him to be a slave or to enjoy all the boasted rights of freedom. He will only have to make the effort, and if his master catches him before he reaches the Ohio, his condition will not be worse than it was before. As to any objection which pro-slavery men might have to this law, it will be found more imaginary than real. It is well known, that when a runaway slave crosses the Ohio, although he is a slave according to the Constitution of the United States so long as he remains within the Union, yet that it is useless to pursue; the game is up, the thing is done.

But it is a well known fact, that a large proportion of the slaveholders of this state are willing to lose the value of the slaves, provided they can be removed out of Kentucky and comfortably provided for. These would have only to say: you may go to Ohio; we can't give you free papers, for the State of Ohio has enacted laws to prevent free negroes entering her borders; but as runaway slaves you will be received; but recollect, you have as much right to live in Ohio as you have in Canada. No doubt many slaves would prefer remaining with their masters to being free in Ohio. Some, perhaps, might return after they had tried Ohio awhile. But the worthless and idle and ill-disposed slaves we should certainly get rid of; we might even lend them a helping hand to get across the Rubicon.

But suppose Ohio demurs, and declares that the slaves of Kentucky shall not come into her territories; then she must keep them out. By the law proposed, we do not set our slaves free to go to Ohio or anywhere else. If they go, they go of their own accord and against our will. We declare for perpetual slavery in Kentucky; but for freedom in Ohio. If she establishes a guard along her extensive river border, then she would kill abolition, and we would no longer be disturbed. But if she agreed to colonize our negroes for us, then the great difficulty of finding a home for the negro is removed.

NUMBER II.

That article in the Constitution of the United States which provides that the owner of a runaway slave shall have the right to pursue his slave into the territories of a free state, and there apprehend him and take him home, has been the vital main-spring of abolition from the time that the first slaveholder attempted to catch his runaway negro within the borders of a free state. The South has fought for this article as if her very existence depended on it. It has been the fruitful source of fierce contests in Congress. It has given rise to lengthy, windy and nonsensical state papers between the governors of slave and free states; and withal it has never secured the rights nor property of the South It has been fruitful of evil, and of nothing but evil. Repeal it to-morrow, and you at once make the abolitionists powerless; you immediately change totally the former aspects of this question in Congress. You will never hear another speech made on the floors of Congress about the evils of slavery; there will no longer a northern man be found to defend the Wilmot Proviso. The only cry will be—save us from the negro race; the South may have all of New-Mexico and California too, if they will only take their negro slaves to those countries; and although we did oppose the Mexican war to prevent the extension of the area of slavery, we are now willing to conquer Mexico even, if you have not territory enough to settle your negro slaves upon. We have been dreaming all this time; we are now wide awake; you southerners have caught the Yankees napping for once; it was a mesmeric sleep; we were fighting a windmill, and it has blown away the foggy atmosphere we breathed; it is now our turn to provide a home for the American negro; we hope you southern gentlemen will contribute something to enable us to send away the negroes among us; we *guess* they might be apprenticed in the

British West Indies; their condition would certainly be greatly improved; they might have to work hard, it is true, but they would be well fed, and they could clothe themselves as well as they are now clothed with us. Besides, it is a warm climate; save us from any more emancipation; save us from Cuba's ever being free; we wish we only knew some way to make a runaway negro's master come after him; *we guess* he would not find much trouble in getting him now.

And what has the South gained by the article in the Federal Constitution, of which I have spoken? How often does a man succeed in getting home a runaway slave who has once got into a free state? and if there was ever any chance, is not that chance becoming less and less every year? Are not the free states passing laws every year to nullify the article of the constitution of which I am speaking? and while they are passing such laws, they are also passing laws to prevent the immigration of free negroes into their states. Look at Ohio, whose citizens are stealing all the negroes from Kentucky that they can—how did they receive John Randolph's negroes? Suppose that while the courts of Virginia were determining which of Mr. Randolph's wills was his real will, the one which liberated his slaves, or the one which did not; suppose, I say, that the negroes had all escaped in a body into the State of Ohio: Then what would the good people of Ohio have said, had the Virginia people gone after them? Why just this—you Virginians are having a mockery of a trial in your pro-slavery courts, with your slaveholding judges and juries; and what chance do these poor negroes, whom their benevolent master willed to be free, have to ever obtain that freedom? If you attempt to take them, it shall be at the risk of your lives. We will secure them that liberty which they are doubly entitled to, and which you iniquitously intend to deny them, at all hazards. This is what in their honesty and Christian charity they would have said, had they got the chance. Does any body doubt it? But the tables were turned. The slaveholding judges and juries of Virginia decided that Randolph's slaves should be free. The executors of the will went to Ohio and purchased lands, and moved the negroes there, and attempted to settle them comfortably upon their own lands. The negroes were to be well provided for. What said the good, honest, charitable, slavery-hating people of Ohio then? Has any body forgotten what they said, and what they did? Liberated slaves they drive out of their borders; 'tis only runaway slaves they are willing to receive. And so would it be again. Take away from the people of Ohio the ability to compel runaway slaves to go to Canada, and in one year they would be making more efforts to prevent the slaves of Kentucky entering their state than the Kentucky people have ever made to prevent their getting there; and, moreover, if the slaves of Kentucky, who have escaped into Canada, could as easily get back to their former masters as they could were they only separated from us by the Ohio River, there is no doubt whatever that hundreds of them would gladly return.

Slavery is not so hard a bondage as the northern philanthropists suppose; and the disposition to run away is a feeling that does not often find a place in the bosoms of well treated servants who are not meddled with by designing fanatics. In all the great moving principles of human action, mankind are very nearly on an equality, in all ranks and conditions of life. Forbid a thing, and the human mind instinctively desires to obtain it. The negro is no exception to this universal sentiment. Let them know that the so-called land of freedom is very near, and they will not be half so much inclined to run away as they now are. 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view in this as in many other things. The reality is too often a sad disappointment in all human affairs. When the slaves of Kentucky found that they were denied employment in Ohio altogether, or at wages so miserably low as barely to pay for the coarsest food; there would be enough of them who would return to Kentucky to disabuse the minds of their fellow-servants as to the blessings of freedom and the philanthropy of the people of the free states.

It is notorious that the white people of the free states of all classes, have an utter repugnance to being associated with a negro in any manner whatever. They will not allow one to ride in the same car or stage coach with them, and they treat them like dogs in all the relations of life. They have great love for them it is true, but that love increases in geometrical proportion with the square of the distance which separates them. This burning, zealous love sinks to zero when they come in contact. Nor is this antipathy an unnatural one. There is no dispute as to the mental and physical inferiority of the black race. There are many things about him which are repugnant, and it is necessary that a man be raised, or brought up, as the northern people say, in the daily intercourse with him, for this disgust not to obtain. Moreover, it is as common for a man to look down upon and keep at a distance the man whom he considers beneath him, as it is for water to run down hill. The class of servants and day-laborers in the free states and in Europe, is one for which their masters and employers have no sympathy, no regard. What is done for the poor and unfortunate is done by the state; there is no personal feeling in the matter. The American negro slave is the only laboring and serving class on this earth, between whom and his master there is any love, any friendship; and it is the only class of day-laborers or slaves on the face of the earth which is improving. There is not one master in ten thousand who counts the cost in providing for a sickly or decrepit negro slave. In sickness and in old age, they are cared for as one of the family. It is not so in the *free states* of this Union, nor in any part of Europe. It will not take the negroes long to find out these things. Pass such a law as I propose, and in ten years the South will be allowed to go on in the even tenor of her way, in peace and quiet, undisturbed by northern fanatics and hypocrites. There may be some loss to slave owners for a year or two; but if there is, we must consider that this is a question which must be met; we cannot avoid it; and it is impossible but that in meeting it there must be some sacrifice.

But how must this law be passed? Must there be an amendment of the Constitution of the United States? By no means—never let the Constitution of the United States be interfered with. The free states have no right to legislate upon this question in Congress. Let the states settle it for themselves. Let Kentucky make it a part of her own constitution, to govern her own citizens, not those of Tennessee, or Mississippi. Though no lawyer, I suppose the people of a sovereign state have a right to make any law they choose to govern her own citizens within her own borders. The law would infringe upon the rights of nobody out of the state.

2.—ARTESIAN WELLS IN ALABAMA.

When in Cahaba, I had the pleasure of examining the very interesting Artesian well, bored by Mr. N. B. Read, for Joel Matthews, Esq., at the site of his cotton factory. The depth already penetrated is 710 feet 10 inches. The first bore was about three inches in diameter, and the discharge is 600 gallons per minute, or 864,000 gallons in 24 hours, exceeding, probably, any well in America. Mr. Read is now engaged in rimming out to a diameter of six inches. The force of the water greatly facilitates this operation, as it throws out at the top all the material which the auger detaches.

This, I believe to be the first well in Alabama, which has been sunk below the water, which, rising to the surface in abundance for ordinary purposes, is found beneath the first stratum of soft limestone.

In this locality, this stratum was perforated to a depth of 363 feet from the surface, when a stratum of sandstone was reached five feet in depth. In this formation, marine fossils were found in great abundance, shells, star-fish, &c. Below this in a stratum of gray sand, three feet thick, water was found, which rose to the surface in a bold stream.

This is the point, ranging from 200 to 600 feet below the surface, at which it is customary to cease operations in boring Artesian wells in this country; but in this instance, Mr. Matthews discarded the fear of losing the water, which has hitherto deterred penetration to a greater depth, and allowed Mr. Read, at his solicitation, to extend his operations downwards in search of a more abundant supply. Immediately below the water was found a formation of very hard sandstone, one foot three inches thick. Then a formation which Mr. Read describes as a "dark blue sticky sand," nine feet three inches thick—then blue soft limestone seven feet—bluish gray sand 19 feet—green sand three feet. Below this last stratum, water was again found in a gray sand, or fine debris of mica, quartz and feldspar, probably disintegrated granite, being 40 ft. 6 in. below the first water, and 411 feet 6 in. below the surface. This stratum continued unchanged for 125 ft. in depth, and the water obtained from it greatly augmented the supply. Below this, a hard gray sandstone 11 feet thick was encountered, where water was again found in sand, generally similar to that above the sandstone, except that it was traversed with occasional thin strata of soapstone. This formation, with water, constantly augmenting the discharge of the well as the depth was increased, continued for 299 feet, or 710 feet 10 inches from the surface, where the boring terminates for the present.

It is Mr. Matthews' intention, after he has rimmed out the well to the diameter of six inches, for the whole depth, to continue boring so long as the water continues to increase in quantity. It is the design to tube the well, so far, at least, as to shut off the water found beneath the first stratum of limestone. It is thought that this will greatly increase the force of the discharge from the lower fountain, which is the main source of the supply.

Many wagon-loads of sands have been thrown out from below by the force of the water. The water, however, is perfectly clear and limpid, and pleasant to the taste. Pieces of stone the size of an egg, or larger, or a silver half dollar, if thrown into the well, are immediately ejected.

3.—PROGRESS OF WESTERN TEXAS.

De Witt County.—During a late trip up the country, we visited the settlements on the west side of the Guadaloupe, including Clinton, the county seat of De Witt County, as well as those on the Colettes. Agriculturally considered, there are few counties in the state superior to De Witt—perhaps we may say, there are few equal to it. The lands on the Guadaloupe are unsurpassed in fertility, whilst the back country, particularly on the Colettes and Sandies, is highly picturesque, being just sufficiently rolling to delight the eye and to throw a glow of enchantment over the prospect. Much of this rolling country, too, is rich and valuable, and is settling up quite fast. Besides the Guadaloupe River running through De Witt County, there are the three Colettes, the two Sandies, the Brushies, and other small streams, all admitting flourishing settlements. Internal dissensions have hitherto retarded the building of a town in this section of the country. Recently, however, the permanent location of the county seat at Clinton has given an impetus to that place, and it now bids fair to become a point of considerable importance.

San Antonio.—This far-famed city we found to be very greatly improved since our previous visits thereto. Many of the residences are truly beautiful, especially those around the memorable "Alamo," that venerable pile so intimately associated with the heroes of Texan story. By the by, we could not but regret that this time-hallowed monument of heroic bravery should have been so completely metamorphosed by the utilitarian spirit of the age, that it has lost all its ancient and striking features—the walls having been repaired and roofs added, as well as other improvements, by its present occupants, the United States Quarter-Master's Department.

There is not, perhaps, in the United States, an inland town of the same size as San Antonio, that is possessed of as much wealth as it is. The property belonging to the corporation is estimated at $200,000, whilst among the citizens there are many who, besides heavy cash capitals, hold large bodies of land that must soon become very valuable. The country around San Antonio has settled up very rapidly during the last two or three years, and is now far a-head of the town in its improvements. Indeed, this is the case in almost every portion of Western Texas.

Seguin.—This beautiful town has risen like magic since the completion of the commodious and well-appointed college buildings that now grace that pleasant place. The Seguin High School consists of a male and female department, managed by trustees, the number of teachers being two males and three females. The buildings consist of two beautiful edifices, 25 by 60 feet each, and are distant from each other about three hundred yards. They are built of stone, two stories high, with cupolas and porticos, and are at once an ornament to the town and a monument to the spirit and enterprise of their projectors. The buildings are precisely similar, we believe, except that the exterior of the female edifice presents the best appearance in its masonry, which, indeed, could not well be surpassed. The cost of each was something over $5,000. Town lots that previous to the construction of these buildings had been worth only $10 and $20, can now be sold for more than $100. And so of all real property. Seguin has wisely taken the lead of all her sister towns in the matter of education—a glorious mission for which she is exceedingly well qualified, and in which she must long maintain an ascendency.

Texana.—We learn with pleasure, that the business and population of Texana, in Jackson county, are increasing considerably. It is evident to the most sceptical, that the position of that place, at the head of good steamboat navigation on one of the finest little rivers within our knowledge, must insure its growth to a goodly size; no interior town in Texas, all things considered, has better navigation than Texana; none, we are sure, from many years of personal acquaintance, is surrounded by a better class of people. The region of the Navidad and Lavaca, though not in the aggregate one of the richest in soil, is, nevertheless, one of the most desirable to the farmer and planter; the bottom lands are rich, while the top lands are diversified in timber land and rich prairie, varying in its texture from stiff hog wallow to light sandy lands, though most usually it is what farmers term black sandy, easy of cultivation and productive. This section is gently undulating or rolling, traversed by creeks innumerable, and, more than any part of this country, capable of receiving and fostering a dense farming population. Texana is the nearest navigable point to that part of the country. With wise measures on the part of her proprietors and merchants, the opening of roads and the encouragement of navigation to our bay, she must become a fine business place. The steamer Envoy has recently made several successful trips to that place.

4.—THE VARIOUS SOILS OF EAST FLORIDA.

Most persons looking at our country, are greatly at a loss how to judge of the character of the various soils they meet with here—their comparative fertility and durability. Persons who are good judges in other countries, distrust their ability to judge properly here. For the benefit of such, we propose to give some general rules which may be relied on—at least they are, in our judgment, confirmed by experiences.

Then, in the first place, the plentiful admixture of lime found in all the soils of East Florida, in connection with a moist and warm atmosphere, renders all our soils both more free and lasting than appearances would warrant.

The abundance of sand found in almost all our soils, would lead to the supposition that they were thirsty, weak, and easily worn. But such admixture of sand in our peculiar climate, and under an almost tropical sun, is a means both of activity and durability. Take those small portions of land here, the soil of which is almost without admixture of sand, with clay and marl very near the surface, it matters not how rich the virgin growth when cleared, the cultivation is hard, and the production uncertain, requiring a peculiar sort of season to suit it, and its long exposure to the sun injurious to its after production. Such lands bog in the extreme wet seasons, and bake when very dry. In another climate they would be extremely fertile—a more thorough cultivation may make them so here.

There are soils here too sandy, both hummock and pine land, which will not produce very freely when fresh, nor last long when cultivated. In some of these the soil is very fine, but light, and almost without any principle of cohesiveness. In some, the sand is extremely coarse; such land will produce freely when fresh, but will soon wear.

There is every color of soil, from black to white. In color there is not such a difference as almost every one imagines at first sight. If the soil is fine, heavy, mellow, with rich growth—such as gamlynn, white oak, cherry, magnolia, mulberry, persimmon—all large and luxuriant, the hummock is good. Buy, settle, stay, be content—you can come it.

To have the clay close underneath is not indispensable either to last or fertility. A deep soil is here preferable; it will stand the droughts better, and rainy seasons better. There is clay or marl under all our lands; some deeper, some shallower.

The greater portion of East Florida is pine land—of this there are as many sorts as of hummock. They are not appreciated as they should be; they are the easiest cleared and cultivated, and some of them but little inferior to the hummocks: for cotton, they are as good if not better. The soils are in their variety and character much like the hummocks. Judge of them in the same way, varying something for difference of growth. There is a great deal too poor to call land; it might be called desert—barren of everything but bushes and spruce pine saplings; these spots are called scrubs. The next are the lands covered with slim red oak trees. Then come pine forests—trees large, growth plentiful. Next in order is an admixture of big bud hickory, and large pine trees. This is good cotton land, and improves by cultivation. Then there are two other sorts, the quality about equal, which would make a land hunter laugh. The one a dark gray soil, covered thick with long, straight pine saplings; and the other hickory land, mostly bordering on the hummocks, with an occasional large oak and pine—the soil dark, fine, heavy, and like the negro's rabbit, good for anything.

There are some low hummocks on the coast and margins of the lakes and rivers very rich, but full wet, requiring much labour to bring them into successful cultivation. In looking at the land in an extremely dry season, one might be deceived. Such as are too low will show it on the roots of the growth, where there will be evident signs of water; the roots of the trees being on the top of the soil, and the buts of the timber large or swelled.

There are some lands on the rivers and lakes stiff, clammy, cold-natured, flat; with much of the cabbage palmetto, somewhat hog wallowed, which is worthless.

The prairies found here are either basins often covered in water, or the margins of lakes and rivers which often overflow and remain so for months; some of these would be productive if they were safe to cultivate; others totally unproductive. No one should risk them until portions of them have been tried and proven good, or until some means have been discovered of neutralizing the noxious property which may be found in them.

Lastly, the occasional appearance on the surface, in pine or hummock, of lime rock, is an evidence of strong land, and is only objectionable when in quantities sufficient to be in the way of cultivating.

These hints will serve to enlighten the judgments of those unacquainted with our soils.

5.—THE SECRET OF NATIONAL WEALTH.

We extract the following editorial of the Boston Courier, which refers to some of the *peculiar* doctrines of the Review. Two notable things will be observed in the extract: 1. *That the South is not a consuming country.* (It was always charged upon us before that we did nothing but *consume*, luxuriously expending all, and taking no thought for the morrow.) 2. *That only consuming countries are rich.* (What a mint must be an *alms-house*, and what "old fogies" must be those—i. e. all the economists—who teach that *production* has something to do with national wealth.) This is a comfortable doctrine, at least.

Poet.—"My wound is great because it is so small."
Critic.—"It would be greater were it none at all." [Ed.

In a southern periodical, entitled De Bow's Commercial Review, a publication in which much intelligence and ability are mixed up with strange misconceptions of the science of political economy, we have frequently met with elaborate essays on the commerce of the southern states. In these essays all sorts of reasons except the true ones are assigned for its inferiority to the commerce of the northern states, and all sorts of projects except the right ones are devised to quicken the commercial enterprise of the South and place it on a level with its rival at the other extremity of the Union. In the latest number of this journal is an article on the subject of the Commercial Dependence of the South on the North, from which we extract the following.

(We omit the extracts.)—[Ed.

Here the old question is raised again: "Why is not the South as rich as the North? Why is not southern commerce as flourishing as northern commerce? Why are not southern ships as numerous as northern ships?" The Review has often attempted to satisfy these inquiries by replying that southern merchants are not so enterprising as northern merchants. But this is only shifting the form of the query, for the question comes up again—"Why are they not so enterprising?"

The southern merchants reply that they have not the *capital* of the northern merchants, and this passes among them as a satisfactory reason for their inferior enterprise. Under this persuasion they have made serious endeavors to induce British merchants to send capital from England into the southern states and establish commercial agencies there—a thoroughly fruitless attempt—as any one may understand who reflects that capital goes where the owner thinks he can make it ultimately profitable to *himself*, and not where it has merely the prospect of benefiting *others*. How came capital in the northern states? How came enterprise here? We had once none of either.

Let the southern merchants lay this fact to heart, for it lies at the foundation of the science of political economy. No country can be rich that is not a great *consuming* country. A country may have a fertile soil, rich mines, good harbors, navigable rivers, a healthy climate, and all natural and geographical advantages, but it will be wealthy only in proportion as it is occupied by a people who require much material in their mode of life, and who use much. Peru is poor—Mexico is poor. They have no commerce, no national wealth, with all their advantages of soil, climate, and the richest mines in the world. They are comparatively non-consuming countries. When you pass through a land and find the people living in huts, and clad in rags, you may be certain there is no national wealth there, let the climate and soil be what they will. Compare Holland with Spain, England with Sicily, Massachusetts with South Carolina, and you see a palpable embodiment of the most important principle of political economy. In all these regions the natural advantages are on the side of the poorer countries.

If the Charleston merchant wonders why fewer commodities are imported into that market than into Boston, cannot he find a ready answer in the fact that commodities go only where they are wanted. Now, which state requires the greater amount of commodities? Massachusetts, where the people from high to low—the farmer and the artisan, as well as the capitalist and the merchant-prince—live in good houses, and are clad in good clothes, whose rooms have carpets, furniture, pictures, books, plate, china, and what not,—where the taste and the intellect, as well as the grosser wants of nature, find objects fitted for their gratification—or South Carolina, where more than half the population dwell in huts, and their wants are confined to a jacket and trowsers, a hoe-cake and a fiddle?

Commodities come to *us* because we want them—and we want them because we consume them. Commodities are not carried to South Carolina because they are not consumed there, and of course not wanted there. If you wish to make a southern state as rich as Massachusetts, encourage the industry of that state, and give it a population of consumers. Paying a foreign laborer is only helping a foreign country to be a consuming country, and therefore a wealthy country. Every wheel that flies round among us, every arm that is raised in labor, becomes a means of increasing the consumption of commodities, of increasing commerce, of increasing national wealth; and it does all these things exactly in proportion as it is well paid for its labor.

6.—STEAMBOAT INSURANCE—LOSS OF LIFE AND PROPERTY, &c., ON THE WESTERN WATERS.

Sometime ago we made a vague estimate of the loss of life on western steamboats as 1 in every 2,000. The following statistics show 482 persons lost to 3,000,000 passengers, or 1 in 6,000, to say nothing of the merely wounded. On the English rail-roads the loss is 1 in 5,000,000.

A report made to the Treasury Department states, that in the year 1851, the steamboats and their cargoes, insured in Pittsburgh, Wheeling, Louisville, and Cincinnati, amounted to $32,811,440, and that the losses incurred amounted to $437,434 66. Of the steamboats and cargoes there were insured in Cincinnati to the amount of $17,038,439; in Louisville, $10,185,855; in Pittsburgh, $4,822,329, and in Wheeling, $764,767. The losses were divided as follows: Cincinnati, $257,428 48; Louisville, $147,582 17; Pittsburgh, $30,434 98; Wheeling, $11,989 03.

The number of steamboats owned and enrolled in these four cities, respectively, in the year 1851, was 330, which were distributed as follows: Pittsburgh, 112; Wheeling, 46; Cincinnati, 111; Louisville, 61. The aggregate tonnage of these boats amounted to 64,297 tons, of which 16,942 tons belonged to Pittsburgh; 7,190 tons to Wheeling; 24,985 to Cincinnati; and 15,180 tons to Louisville. The total number of passengers to and from the four cities named above, chiefly carried on these steamers, was, for the year, 3,050,026. The number of steamboats destroyed in the course of the year, belonging to these four cities, was forty-two, of which number nineteen were snagged and thirteen burned. The total number of lives lost in these several disasters were 482.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

A. A. SMETS, Esq., of Georgia.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 19.

Mr. Smets is a retired merchant of Savannah, and though he has figured less largely in the commercial movements of that city than many others, he has yet, throughout a very long career, established a character for probity, enterprise, and that sort of public spirit which always stamps the good citizen.

Born at Nantes, in 1795, he had, at the early age of eighteen, enlisted in the army, but instead of being dispatched to the scene of war, he was retained in one of the offices at La Rochelle. Here his promotion to a lieutenancy was about being consummated when the disasters of the campaign of 1814 put an end to the war. A return to private life, and to a clerkship in a mercantile house, succeeded. In this sphere, whilst meditating a departure for New-Orleans to make a home, and whilst husbanding the means necessary for the purpose, he became acquainted with Mr. Charles Maurel, a merchant of Savannah, who, by flattering representations, changed his purpose, and carried him to that city, where he landed in 1816, with high hopes, strong resolves, but unhappily an empty purse.

Mr. Smets now set about amending a somewhat deficient early education, and the attainment of the English language, without which it was evident he could make no advancement. The first book that he read was D'Israeli's "Literary Characters," and forming so strong an attachment for the author, he afterwards procured all of his works, in some cases twenty years before their republication on this side of the water.

In 1820 he married a lady of Savannah, beginning with her the battle of life with but the small patrimony, resulting from the conjoined fortunes of the two, "youth, industrious habits, and devotedness"—a patrimony, however, which makes more fortunes, and is the source of more great deeds in this world very often than "ancestorial bearings," broad acres, burnished equipages, or any of those high inheritances which

> "———— Tumble down,
> And in the dust are equal made
> With the poor crooked scythe and spade."

Soon after his marriage, Mr. Smets formed a copartnership in the lumber business with his brother-in-law, and netted in the first eighteen months the remarkable sum of forty dollars! This little he eked out by sundry writings for lawyers and merchants until it reached a scanty subsistence. The partnership did not long subsist, but by continuing the business on his own account, and by industry, energy, and faithfulness, attracting the favorable attention of several parties in Carolina, Mr. Smets succeeded at last in obtaining consignments which yearly increased in value, until his retirement in 1849 with a very handsome fortune.

Perhaps one of the finest libraries ever collected by or retained in the possession of a Southern gentleman, is that which graces and adorns the halls of Mr. Smets' mansion. It has a reputation wide as the country, and scarcely a scholar or distinguished personage visits Savannah without seeking it out and feasting upon its contents. The man who could, amid all the cares and perplexities of mercantile life, preserve the taste and the inclination for books, and those, too, selected from the classics of every country and time, surely deserves an honorable mention among his cotemporaries, and is as much, by his example, a public benefactor, as he is who rests upon the laurels of building rail-roads, or opening manufactories.

Referring to his taste for books, Mr. Smets has himself said, "The care of a large family and the duties demanded by an extensive concern, did not so completely absorb my time that I could not spend part of it in my library.

Let my troubles be ever so great, I could there cast them all aside. Every one has his hobby. Books have been emphatically mine. Though it never entered into my head to make such a valuable collection as I now have, I ever ardently desired to procure whatever works or literary curiosities I found referred to in the course of my readings. I cannot express my delight on the opening of every new parcel. Thus my library has gradually increased, until I am quite surprised to find myself called upon by every stranger of note visiting the city."

For these literary tastes and propensities, the honorary degree of Master of Arts was conferred upon Mr. Smets many years ago, without his knowledge or consent, by the Oglethorpe University.

We have not the space, however for a more extended notice, but must content ourselves with a brief extract from a very elaborate and able paper which appeared in the Southern Literary Messenger, last November, descriptive of a visit made by the classical editor, within the sacred precincts of the library of Mr. Smets. Were it possible we would enumerate some of the quaint, curious, and valuable old books and manuscripts which are described, and which run back to a period long anterior to the invention of the printing-press itself.

"We shall not soon forget the enjoyment we derived from a few hours spent among Mr. Smets' treasures, nor the kindly glow of satisfaction which lighted up the countenance of the benevolent proprietor in showing them. And here, if the reader could excuse the digression, we might mention, that of all men those who are afflicted with bibliomania are in general the best disposed to be complaisant to strangers, and then proceed to inquire into the philosophy of so curious a fact. But it suffices to say that Mr. Smets to us, at least, appeared an exception to the class. And as we have not vanity enough to suppose that his courtesy proceeded from any discovery in us of peculiar qualifications to justly appreciate his choice and valuable collection, we must attribute the civil treatment we received to the native kindliness of his disposition alone.

* * * *

"The first emotion on entering and casting the eye around upon the magnificent display of the ample shelves, is that of surprise that the visitor has not before heard of so extensive and luxurious a collection. In our country, where so few enjoy the means of accumulating valuable books, and where even those so rarely have a taste for bibliothecal treasures, it is of the rarest occurrence that we may meet with a good and well-selected library. But here the visitor will be apt to say, is surely the most sumptuous, if not the largest and most recherché library in the country. We confess that not the least inducement that leads us to play the guide to the rooms of Mr. Smets is to make more widely known the riches they contain. The library does not rest its claims upon the large number of volumes it contains, of which there are perhaps eight thousand, but upon the choice selection of the authors, and the great rarity of the editions. It is composed principally of English works in all branches of learning and the fine arts, embracing the earlier and later poets—the more celebrated novelists—the best historians and biographers—in a word, every author that can be called standard. To these may be added specimens of the most ancient typography, and of the illuminated manuscripts of the middle ages, such as would tempt the most pious man in the world, if he were only a bibliomaniac, into an utter disregard of the tenth if not the eighth commandment. When we say further, that all the volumes are bound in a manner the most elegant known to the trade, and are arranged in rich cases of mahogany, some idea may be formed of the appearance of the library."

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—PRACTICAL MEN OF VIRGINIA.

I HAVE long postponed answering your letter, with the hope of being able, while transmitting the names of a few Virginians, distinguished in the Industrial Departments, to give it somewhat of the character of a *Catalogue raisonné*. But my engagements are of a nature, I find, to forbid doing this in any way just to them or myself—or to your journal. Desirous, however, that by no omission of mine, the merited tribute of public appreciation (for which you have provided so happily conceived a channel) shall fail to crown the memories of some, at least, of these exemplars and models of their race, I send their names—briefly indicating their paths of usefulness, that you may judge whether they are the characters you seek after, and sometimes the sources to which you might, perhaps, successfully apply for proper sketches of their several careers.

Among the earliest of such known to me was Joseph Gallego, of Richmond—an old obese, dark, heavy-looking Spaniard, as I remember him, tottering off the stage of life, forty years ago, when I came—a child then—tottering on it. He left a high reputation for sagacity, great mechanical ingenuity, rare business capacity, energy, and steady perseverance. He erected those mills bearing his name, which gave to the Richmond flour that No. 1 reputation in the markets of the world, which it has never lost; he opened and extended that branch of commerce, which, going on under not unworthy successors, has continued from that day to grow in magnitude and importance, till it is now one of the chief elements of the export trade of the state; and he impressed, by his constant care and solicitous regard for the *standard* value of his name, an estimation of the "Gallego" brand, that made it current as sterling gold in foreign markets long after his hand ceased to stamp it (perhaps it is so even now)—but warranted still by the posthumous skill and care of his successors.

In agriculture, JOHN TAYLOR, of Caroline, is altogether the most distinguished name Virginia can present—(while he was not one of her least eminent contributors to political knowledge, and, perhaps, the most charming talker she has produced.) He was an acute and thoughtful observer—of an original self-relying cast of mind—a bold but not rash or hap-hazard experimenter—he made [more than] "two blades of grass grow where one grew before," and while he presented the model-farm of the state, made so by superior skill and judgment, and care withal, he had no reason (as too many have who get up show-farms) to withhold from scrutiny the balance-sheet of the account-book of the farm. A young man, I had the good fortune to witness the descent towards the western horizon of his great mind, as it went down with retarded pace and with mellowed, but hardly-waning lustre, to its setting. His neighbor, friend and admirer, Mr. J. H. Bernard, yet lives, and might, most competently, if he would, give you many traits and anecdotes of his life that would well repay the reading. His address is Port Royal, Virginia.

JOSEPH C. CABELL, of Nelson—not yet passed away from the stage—deserves the most distinguished mention in connection with the great subject of Internal Improvement. Originally of good mind, "ripened and matured by travel, observation, and studious leisure"—worthily ambitious to connect his name with some great work of good to his native state—the fame of Clinton seemed that he has sought to emulate—while no field he at once saw for achieving such a renown could be wished fitter than was Virginia; and devoting himself for years to the amassing of information, by seeing and reading of all sorts that might contribute to the success of such an achievement, he threw himself, now some 20 years ago, energetically, and with his whole soul, into the undertaking. He traversed the state, familiarized himself with every hill and mountain, every stream and valley—addressed the people everywhere and people of all sorts, and at all times, *nocte dieque*—dispelled the thick fogs of ignorance that enveloped them—roused their dormant energies, and stimulated doubting governors and timid legislatures to sympathy and active co-operation. He set, finally, the great ball in motion. Our Central Canal, which he designed should penetrate, should traverse the state, from the head of navigation on our Eastern to steam-navigation on the Western waters, he pushed half-way to the accomplishment of his great design, when its heavy cost and great delays, its hampered finances and the growing favor of other improvements, brought it almost to a stand-still; and, as a natural consequence, brought along with them, also, the deposition of its great patron. Whether that grand work is destined to consummation or no, is yet problematical; whether to success, if completed, may admit also of doubt. If success attend it, to him will all men accord the eternal honor; but if it fail, its very failure will have been the germ of the other great improvements that shall supercede it, and still, to him, in that event, more than to any other man in the state, must candor award the merit—the overtopping praise of having first and most aroused to practical and efficient action the dormant, tardy, inert inactivity of the people of Virginia, under which, as under an incubus, she writhed, without progressing, with ineffectual throes and purposes; but which thrown off, as now, she is seen—like some sluggish argosy waked up by the breeze—bounding forward on a career of augmented and increasing prosperity that shall renew for her the warm admiration of the world, and excite the not-unbecoming exultation and pride of her own sons.

For the present I pause—possibly to extend the catalogue at some other leisure hour, if you desire it. What I have written will give you a glimpse merely of some of the characters I think worthy of a better setting, and the means of pursuing your inquiries, I hope, with advantage. If I write *currente calamo*, as you see, it is not from indifference to the object or the subjects, but because, in good truth, my dear sir, I have to snatch an interval from (too) engrossing engagements; and must write you thus unsatisfactorily, and send what I write with all its imperfections on its head—or not at all.

2.—SPEED ON WESTERN RIVERS.

Whether this extraordinary "running" is altogether compatible with the lives and security of passengers on western waters; or whether it has ever had anything to do with those "burstings," "snaggings," "collisions," &c., which furnish weekly items for the newspapers, and transient excitement to the public mind, we shall not stop here to consider. The traveling world think it of no importance, and why should we?

The Reindeer.—Great Feat.—The Reindeer, Capt. Samuel Montgomery, arrived at Louisville, from New-Orleans, Sunday afternoon, at 2¼ o'clock, having made the trip in the heretofore unequaled time of *four days, twenty hours and forty-five minutes.* She made eighteen stops during the run—in addition, she took in much bad fuel, which detained her some time in the run. Her time out, to various points, is as follows:

From New-Orleans to		*Miles.*
Fairchild's Island	24h	—
To Vicksburg	31h 25m	420
To Cypress Bend, below mouth of Arkansas	48h	—
To Memphis	2d 16h 45m	810
To Ashport	3d	—
To Cairo	3d 12h 45m	1,020
To Paducab	3d 16h 50m	—
To mouth of Wabash	4d	—
To Evansville	—	—
To Louisville	4d 20h 45m	1,400

The Eclipse.—Four Days Eighteen Hours from New-Orleans.—The Eclipse arrived this morning, at half-past five o'clock at Louisville, bringing New-Orleans dates of the 5th, making the run in four days and eighteen hours from port to port. This fully entitles the Eclipse to the title of the champion in speed, as well as size and magnificence.

Time out from New-Orleans as follows:

To Red Church	2hs
Bonuet Carre Point	3hs 15m
Jefferson City	4hs 40m
Donaldsonville	6hs
Bayou Goula	7hs 26m
Plaquemine	8hs 20m
Baton Rouge	10hs 22m
Bayou Sara	12hs 20m
Natchez	21hs 18m
General Taylor's plantation	24hs
Rodney	24hs 50m
Grand Gulf	26hs 14m
Vicksburg	30hs
Lake Provideuce	42hs
Napoleon	46hs
Montgomery Point	47hs 30m
Helena	2ds 8hs 30m
Memphis	2ds 15hs 30m
Randolph	2ds 18hs 50m
Cairo	3ds 11hs
Padncah	3ds 14hs 30m
Shawneetown	3ds 20hs 45m
Evansville	4ds 2hs
Louisville	4ds 18hs

Detained ten hours on the trip.
Running time four and one-half days.

3.—SPEED OF RACERS.

We give, from the "Spirit of the Times," the doings of another class of racers, and the fastest heats of four miles ever run in the United States. Assuredly as between steam-racing and horse-racing, one cannot choose long upon the score of morals and propriety.

Fashion—First heat in the match race won by her, beating Boston	7·32
Free Trade—First heat in a race won by Tally-ho, Bostona second	7·33
George Martin—First heat in a race won at New-Orleans	7·34
Gray Medoc—First heat (dead heat with Altorf) in the race won by Gray Medoc	7·35
Miss Foote—Second heat (after a slow one) at New-Orleans	7·35
George Martin—First heat in a race won by Miss Foote	7·36
Henry—First heat in the match race won by Eclipse	7·37
Jim Bell—First heat in the race in which he beat Sarah Bladen	7·37
Miss Foote—Second heat in the race in which she beat George Martin	7·39
Louis d'Or—Second heat in the race won by Charmer	7·39
Boston, Jim Bell, (a second heat at New-Orleans,) Sarah Bladen, (a second heat at New-Orleans,) Omega, Miss Foote, (a second heat at New-Orleans,) and, perhaps, some other	7·40
Balie Payton—First heat in a race won by Duane	7.42
Monte—First heat in a race won by Jeff. Davis	7.42

Gray Medoc—Third heat, after a close second	7·42
Wagner—Second heat	7·43
Lady Clifden—Second heat	7·43
Tally-ho—Second heat, after closely contesting the first heat in 7·33	7·43
Eutaw—Second heat, beating Inspector's dam (Sarah Washington) and others	7·43
Wagner—First heat	7·44
Clara Fisher—First heat (race won by Bonnets-o'-Blue)	7·45

4.—PROTECTION OF NEW-ORLEANS BY GOVERNMENT.

At a late large and enthusiastic meeting, held in New-Orleans, it was determined that a memorial be prepared, and a committee of gentlemen take charge of its presentation to Congress, urging upon that body the immediate establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans, a line of mail steamers to Vera Cruz, the opening of the passes at the mouth of the Mississippi, and the more regular transmission of the mails. We extract the leading resolutions, and shall from time to time refer to the subject in our pages, until justice be done to New-Orleans and the West in these particulars:

"*Resolved*—That the citizens of New-Orleans owe it to themselves and to the great commercial interests throughout the whole country connected with them, to claim from the Federal Government that protection which the importance of the commerce of the place deserves, and which should be in consonance with the strength and character of this country.

"*Resolved*—That New-Orleans being one of the principal cities of the Union, and the first and most prominent of the South, is considered by her citizens as entitled to a fair proportion of the public expenditure, as compared with any other city in the Union of the same relative importance; and having contributed largely to the general funds which have been expended in Northern cities to their great advantage and improvement, should now, in her turn, receive the consideration of government, in order to promote her advancement by a reasonable attention to all her wants.

"*Resolved*—That in view of the vast commercial importance of this city, receiving, as it does, the products of nearly one half of the states of the Union, and considering our close proximity to the various isthmus routes to the Pacific, over which, ere long, will pass a commerce of immense extent and value, it is incumbent upon us to urge upon the Federal Government the necessity of having a navy-yard established here of ample magnitude, so that our city and its commercial interests may receive such protection, in the event of war, as a well appointed navy-yard can afford.

"*Resolved*—That in order to conduce to the welfare of our city, and to induce success in developing its resources, it is incumbent upon us to promote and encourage among ourselves a spirit of devotion to objects of public good, and to exert our united and collective influence in representing, demanding and insisting upon our rights and claims on the General Government, not only so far as regards the immediate object of this meeting, but in reference to a regular transmission of the mails, the deepening of the water on the bars at the mouth of the Mississippi, and the establishment of a mail line of steamers to Vera Cruz, all of which are subjects of great interest to our city, and require the immediate and earnest attention of our senators and representatives in Congress.

5.—ROUTE OF TRADE UP STREAM.

If it could be necessary for us to add another to the significant facts that have already been furnished in our pages, showing the direction of trade away from the southwest, an extract from a late number of the Louisville Journal would be in point.

"Cotton and tobacco can now be forwarded from Louisville to New-York, by the lake route, at about 55c. p. cwt., while the rates of freight paid for tobacco and cotton to New-Orleans, from this and intermediate points, have ranged from $4 to $5 per hogshead on the former, and $1 30 per bale on the latter, which is nearly equal to the entire charge from here to New-York.

"Besides the increase in the rates of carriage, taking into consideration the greater length of time required for consignments to reach the Atlantic ports, via New-Orleans, than by the lake route, which in itself is a very important item, as regards the time in converting the products into cash, as well as having them in market in case a demand should spring up and a consequent realization of better prices, the lake route is by far more advantageous. But there are other reasons. The rates of insurance and commission, via New-Orleans, nearly double those by the northern route, to say nothing of the climate, which affects the quality and of course the price of articles. We might go on and enumerate various reasons, did we not deem that what has been set forth in the preceding is convincing as to the advantages of the northern over the southern route."

6.—HISTORY OF LAFITTE.

We cannot refrain from extracting from the Philadelphia Bulletin the following, which seems to shed further light upon the history of this remarkable personage. It will be perceived, that the writer expresses the belief that he could obtain other and the most satisfactory data from the family of Lafitte, now living in their native province. We trust that he will do so, and that eventually we shall be enabled to sift out the facts from the multitude of fictions which in regard to him have gained currency and credit. Though there was a good deal of romance mixed up in the sketch that we published last October, which was from the pen of a gentleman now no more, several of the statements in it which were controverted are being corroborated from other sources.

HISTORY OF LAFITTE, THE PIRATE.

Circumstances made us acquainted at one period of our life with the real facts of Lafitte's history, verified in a manner that left no loop-hole for falsehood to creep in. Since then, we have read most of the novels that have been written respecting him, and greater libels were probably never penned, for they represent Lafitte either as a romantic hero, or as a human fiend, when, in fact, he was neither. On the contrary, he was a man who had been goaded by great wrongs to seek revenge, which he did in that wild Arab way which so often characterizes seamen, and which is nourished in the blood, partly by the loneliness of the sea, and partly by a life free from the conventionalities of civilization. For a true sailor has, as Herman Melville says, a spice of the wild morality of the desert, and is, at it were, the Bedouin of the great deep.

Jean Lafitte was born on the Garonne, and not at Marseilles, and was, from his very boyhood, accustomed to the ocean; for he belonged to a family which, for many generations, had furnished some of the most skilful seamen and daring privateersmen of Bayonne. In the great war of the French Revolution, when the commerce of his native province was almost destroyed, he embarked as lieutenant on board a private armed vessel, which, after running a brilliant career, was finally captured by a superior force and carried into an English port. Here Lafitte, with the other officers and the crew, was cast into prison. Time passed; his captain, his brother lieutenants, the common men even, obtained freedom—but Lafitte himself remained a prisoner. His friends, however, and relatives, were active to procure his discharge. Several times were prisoners of equal rank sent into the English ports, through the agency of his old captain, in order to be exchanged for him, but it was not until many long years had passed, that Lafitte found himself free. This long detention raised in him an almost savage thirst for vengeance against England; and, on his release, he returned immediately to privateering, principally for the harm he might thus do to English ships.

The pacification of Europe after the treaty of Fontainbleau deprived him of the means of legally carrying on his revenge. But long years of solitary brooding in prison, and night watches afterwards on the lonely sea, had destroyed, to a great extent, his reverence for human laws; he had, in a word, become an Arab at heart. He determined, accordingly, to continue his career. Yet he refrained from attacking any but English vessels, since it was only against England that he sought revenge. His relations in France heard of his course with inexorable pain, and remonstrated with him earnestly, especially one, who had been a sort of guardian in his youth, and who now expostulated with him almost with tears. But Lafitte was inexorable. At last his early friend called in the aid of religion, and reminded the erring man of the awful destiny he was preparing for himself in eternity. The reply was characteristic: "If I do go to ——," wrote Lafitte, savagely, "I will drag plenty of Englishmen with me." His relatives, aware how great had been the provocation, could say no more. But, from that hour, for many long years, the name of the wandering outlaw ceased to be spoken in the household of his fathers; and children, in whom ran blood kindred to his own, grew up to manhood, ignorant of his very existence.

The subsequent career of Lafitte is well known. Though he committed acts of piracy only on British vessels, he paid no regard to the revenue laws of any nation. For a long period he had under him quite a considerable force at the Island of Barataria. But his early education, which had been strict, asserted its power at last; old memories were re-awakened, and he sighed to return again to civilized life, to lay down the brand of the pirate, to pass his days in quiet. The volcano of passion or insanity, for it was as much the last as the first, had burned out in that fiery heart. He made his peace with the United States, as is popularly known, just before the battle of New-Orleans. Subsequently he returned to his native land, where he died not many years ago. His wife, whom he married in America, is still living, or was, at the time when we heard the narrative we have given.

We should have to violate the sanctities of private life, if our authority was to be given. At the time we heard of the history of Lafitte, we were told the name of his old captain, of the privateer in which he was captured, and many other facts which we have since forgotten. We regret that we did not take down in writing these details. We could possess ourselves of them, indeed, in a month or two, for his relatives still live in their native province; and, perhaps, we may do this yet.

7.—ERRATA.

In our sketch of the life of Edward Bates, of Missouri, published some months ago, some typographical errors, etc., appear. Mr. Bates is stated to have been attorney-general under the United States, instead of under the State of Missouri, and to have been married in 1829 instead of 1823. For "attorney-general of the United States," we intended to say that he was appointed Secretary of War. Near the end of the notes the word "none," in place of "some," conveys the very opposite of the meaning we desired in regard to his very able essays upon the Mexican war, etc. In the sketch of Col. Allston, in May number, Col. Kearney is made Col. Carey, and Pierre Gibert transformed into Pierre Gilbert.

8.—CENTRAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY OF GEORGIA.

The seventh annual fair is to be held at Macon, on the 19th, 20th, 21st, 22d, 23rd October; and it will be on a most brilliant scale, worthy altogether of the great industrial reputation of Georgia. Among the premiums we find a new feature, viz.: for essays upon agricultural and other cognate subjects—agricultural education, elements of agriculture, horticulture, manures, fencing, ditching and draining, stock raising, &c.; also for papers upon cotton, corn, rice, sugar, wheat, oats, rye, peas, potatoes, turnips, clover, hay, &c. A premium of $100 is offered for the best essay on the treatment and management of slaves, which we hope the Society will send for publication in our Review, where it will reach the whole planting interest of the South. Indeed, we shall be glad to publish any of the papers they may think fit to furnish us. Among the premiums to be awarded for the products of the field, &c., we notice the grand divisions of field crops, cotton bales, cattle, horses, jacks and janettes, mules, sheep, shepherds' dogs, swine, poultry, pork, bacon and beef, dairy, honey, household department, domestic manufactures, silk, needle and shell-work, manufactures other than domestic, fruits, floriculture, horticulture, fine arts. There will be a grand plowing match during the fair. The local or district society, which shall send the largest delegation to the fair, will receive a premium. We hope that all of Georgia, and a large part of the South generally, will make it a point to be present. A full list of the premiums may be found in that excellent journal, "The Soil of the South," published in Macon.

9.—CUBA.

Mr. Ashbel Smith has published in one of the Texas papers some memoranda to the effect that the subject of the sale of Cuba to the United States was broached, through an unofficial channel, on behalf of Spain, last summer, a short time previous to the Cuba expedition, and that the negotiation was broken off by the news of that expedition. It seems that Mr. Smith was consulted by a Spanish gentleman of high standing, who represented that he spoke with the knowledge of the Spanish government, and that the purpose was *unofficially* to sound the representative of the American government, Mr. Lawrence. Should it be deemed advisable, the matter would assume an *official* form. Mr. Smith addressed a note to Mr. Lawrence, and received one in reply.

"It was afterwards agreed on the suggestion of the Spanish parties that they should draw up a memorandum without signature, which should form the basis of the interview, etc., with Mr. Lawrence. The delay incident to the preparing of the memorandum, and the absence of one of the parties for a fortnight on the continent, prevented its delivery until the arrival of the Cuban news, which caused the utter abandonment of the business. The memorandum was destroyed, and the parties informed me they dare not be seen visiting the American Legation under present circumstances."

[The reader will here call to memory the X. Y. Z. chapter in our diplomatic history.]

10.—AGRICULTURAL AND MANUFACTURING FAIR IN TEXAS.

Several thousand persons are said to have congregated lately at Corpus Christi, Texas, for the purpose of attending a great fair which was announced to come off. An address was delivered by Ashbel Smith. A large number of premiums was awarded. A series of resolutions was passed, which are, in our opinion, so well conceived, and so well calculated, if carried out, to promote the advancement of the state, that we cannot forbear their insertion.

"Whereas, the state of Texas is settling with unexampled rapidity by emigrants in large bodies from Europe, as well as our sister states, and furnishes in her climate unparalleled agricultural and pastoral resources, as well as the singular advantages of her position on the Mexican Gulf, her contiguity to another nation of vast mineral wealth, and inclosing within her territory one-half the route from the Atlantic to the Pacific shores of the United States.

"And whereas, by the late settlement of the territorial question with the general government, Texas is now in possession of ample means for the development of her great natural sources of wealth, which will add to the welfare and happiness of the whole Union. Therefore, as a proper occasion on the part of the citizens of Texas, now here assembled, for the expression of their opinions, and with the hope of arousing attention among the people at large—

"*Resolved*, That we earnestly invoke the discussion of the question, among the people of the several counties of this state, of the development of our means of intercommunication, inland and seaboard, with a view to a united and well digested plan of internal improvements for the state.

"*Resolved*, That recognizing no sectional distinctions, preferences or prejudices, but looking to the interest of the whole state, we offer, as our opinion, that a sufficient sum should be appropriated, at the next meeting of the Legislature, to clear out the rivers of the state, and place her bays in easy communication with one another; thus bringing together agriculture and commerce, and leaving the natural advantages of each individual port to develop itself as its capital, position, &c., may decide.

"*Resolved*, That the people throughout the state are asking for these improvements, especially as regards the navigation to the entrance of our seaport towns and our bays inland, as preliminary to other and more permanent ones, and that the adoption of these will lead to their extension by rail-roads, by developing in advance the resources necessary for their support."

11.—INSURANCE RATES ON WESTERN RIVERS.

The people of Harrison, Cass, and the adjoining counties of Texas, have lately signed an indignant protest against the course of the insurance companies in New-Orleans, in raising their premiums from 1¼ to 2 per cent. on risks to the upper waters of Red River and the lakes. They believe it to be a scheme "invented at Shreveport for their injury," and they pledge themselves not to trade with any of the parties involved in the affair, and to remain their own underwriters rather than submit, as they term it, to the "black mail," which is sought to be imposed. They have sent us a copy of the protest.

12.—THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

The memorial of the Chamber of Commerce of New-Orleans to the Congress of the United States has at last appeared, in which it is prayed that $100 to $150,000 be appropriated annually to steamboat companies, who, for this consideration, will agree to keep open the passes of the river. The memorial gives a gloomy picture of the present state of things in that quarter :

> "Within the last few weeks, nearly forty ships have been aground on the bar, for various periods, from two days to eight weeks ; some of which are compelled to throw portions of their cargo overboard, and others to discharge cargo into lighters, before they could be got through the channel, occasioning heavy expense to the goods, and great straining, injury, and loss of rigging, anchors and cables to the vessels.
>
> "The fixed and certain loss from these detentions cannot be estimated at less than $500,000, independent of the contingent loss arising from fluctuations and loss of markets, consequent upon the delay of merchandise shipped to meet a certain condition of things abroad, which may be entirely changed by the undue detention of the property in this port.
>
> "The duties of importations on foreign productions brought into the country through this channel within the last year, and collected in the city of New-Orleans, was $2,260,790 ; which added to $700,000 calculated here, but collected in the ports of Cincinnati, Louisville and St. Louis, makes a total of near three millions of dollars of revenue which goes into the coffers of the government."

13.—LATE PUBLICATIONS.

1.—*The Works of Alexander Hamilton*, comprising his Correspondence and his Political and Official Writings—exclusive of the Federalist—civil and military. Published from the original manuscripts deposited in the Department of State, by order of the Joint Library of Congress. Edited by John C. Hamilton, author of the Life of Hamilton. New-York : C. S. Francis & Co.

We have, to our great satisfaction and delight, procured a copy of this admirable work, which is published in seven large and handsome volumes, and contains all of the manuscripts purchased by Congress from the heirs of the distinguished Hamilton.

Though of a different political school, and regarding many of his doctrines as heretical, we cannot but unite with all of our countrymen in a high appreciation of the integrity, ability and public services of this statesman, who stood high enough in the graces of Washington to be at the head of both his civil and his military family ;—we say civil and military, for no one can question his ruling influence in the cabinet, nor forget that the retired president made it a condition on again accepting the command of the army, that Hamilton should be his second.

The *first* volume contains the correspondence of Hamilton between the ages of twelve and twenty-two.

The *second* volume contains his Vindication of Congress, 1774 ; The Farmer Refuted ; the papers of Phocion, Cincinnatus, etc. ; Resolutions in Congress ; Federal Convention and Propositions for a Constitution of Government ; the New-York Convention, etc. This volume covers the period of the corespondence in vol. i.

The *third* volume contains his celebrated Reports, as Secretary of the Treasury, on Finance, State Debts, Public Lands, Public Credit, National Bank, the Mint, Manufactures, etc., etc.

The *fourth* volume contains Cabinet Papers, opinions, estimates, and the correspondence between Hamilton and Washington, Jefferson, Randolph, Short, etc., etc.

The *fifth* volume continues the Cabinet Papers, with all those of a military character, and brings down the correspondence to his 36th year.

The *sixth* volume continues the correspondence to his 46th year, and adds many other letters supplied by Bishop Potter. There are also several papers included on the Funding System, etc.

The *seventh* volume contains the political essays signed An American, Amicus, Catullus, Pacificus, Americanus, Camillus, with a great many others less celebrated ; also the original copy of Washington's Farewell Address, with emendations, etc. The whole concludes with very minute indexes, etc.

We regret that a Life of Hamilton was not appended to the volumes, and that the "Federalist" papers are left out. The work can be had from the publishers.

2.—*History of Modern Philosophy*. By M. Victor Cousin. In 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co., New-York ; J. B. Steel, New-Orleans.

The name of Victor Cousin is certainly first among the metaphysical writers of the age ; but he has the art of throwing all the graces and fire of diction around the most abstruse material. We recollect with delight his admirable work upon Psychology, which formed a part of our college course, and constituted one of our most pleasant studies. The present work includes the first, and consists of lectures delivered in Paris in 1828–9, which created an extraordinary sensation, and are now for the first time given to the English public. Two thousand auditors listened in admiration to the eloquent exposition of doctrines unintelligible to the many, and the oral discussion of philosophy awakened in Paris and in France an interest unexampled since the days of Abelard. The chapters embrace Idea of Philosophy, History of Philosophy, Psychological and Fundamental Epochs in History, Great Epochs, Plan of History, Geography in History, Nations, Great Men, Historians of Humanity, Historians of Philosophy, Philosophy in the Nineteenth Century, Picture of Eighteenth Century, Classification of Philosophical Systems, Mysticism, Greek Philosophy, Examination of Locke and the other Masters, etc., etc.

3.—*Romance of Natural History;* or Wild Scenes and Wild Hunters. By. C. W. Webber, author of "Shot in the Eye," "Old Hicks the Guide," &c. Philadelphia: Lippencott, Gambo & Co. 1852. New-Orleans: T. L. White.

Mr. Webber is a young Kentuckian, who has won high reputation in works of this character, and we trust is winning something equally substantial in "material aid." He tells us here that the object has been to trace the passions of the hunter-naturalist, from their infant dawnings through their gradual developments, up to the stern and strong individualities of such men as Audubon, Boone, Wilson, &c. The wood-cuts are fine, and the stories well told, and often of deep and harrowing interest. The style of typographical execution and binding is also superior.

4.—*Appleton's Popular Library.* The Paris Sketch Book. By W. M. Thackeray. 2 vols.

This belongs to a series of which the Messrs. Appleton are the publishers. The works will be issued semi-monthly, handsomely printed and bound, and contain from 2 to 300 pages each, the object being, to supply for the delight of all, the most agreeable and suggestive authors in narrative, adventure, invention, poetry, sentiment, wit and humor. They may be had from J. B. Steel, and J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans. Price 25 to 50 cents each.

5.—*Guide to Scientific Knowledge.*

A good book, published by C. S. Francis & Co., of New-York, and intended for the use of schools. The author is Dr. Brewer, of London. He has succeeded in popularizing an immense amount of practical knowledge in the natural sciences.

6.—*Romanism at Home,* embracing a series of letters to the Chief Justice of the United States upon the abuses of the Romish Church. In his reply to them, Bishop Hughes speaks of their language as not unworthy of the country which produced Dean Swift and Goldsmith. Harper and Brothers, New-York; J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

7.—*Barnes' Notes on the Book of Revelation.* Harper & Brothers; Morgan, New-Orleans. We shall allow a Churchman, Noel, to speak of Mr. Barnes' claims as a commentator: "He has more learning than Scott; more critical decision than Henry; more spiritual discernment than Whitby; more copiousness than Benson; and more judgment than Gill. He affords precisely the aid which an English reader requires when seeking to ascertain the exact sense of obscure passages; and these "Notes" will, in my opinion, render essential aid to the cause of religion."

8.—*Roman Nights; or the Tomb of the Scipios.* Translated from the Italian, by Henry W. Hilliard. In the work, Marius and Sylla review their career, and we listen to debates between Pompey and Cæsar, which bring to light the policy of each—rivals on earth, and still dividing the assembled multitude of the departed into rival factions. John Ball: Philadelphia and New-Orleans.

9.—*Year Book of Facts*—1852. By Timbs. Hart, publisher. We are indebted to J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans, for a copy. It embraces a brief sketch of all the discoveries and improvements of the past year in mechanics, arts, philosophy, chemistry, geology, geography, meteorology, astronomy, etc., and is, of course, a valuable work for students, etc.

10.—*Bleak House*—No. 2. The Harpers are now publishing, in a neat series, this latest of the productions of Charles Dickens. Price, 12½ cents each.

11.—*Harper's Monthly Magazine*—June. This work is now said to have a circulation of 100,000 copies. It is almost incredible, but no doubt true. This must speak for its merits.

12.—*Spangles and Tingles;* or Rival Belles. A Tale. By J. B. Jones, author of Wild Western Scenes. Published by A. Hart, of Philadelphia; Morgan, New-Orleans. This is another of the series of humorous American works illustrated by Darley.

13.—*Consulate and Empire of Napoleon.* A. Hart, of Philadelphia, having published the first ten parts of M. Thiers' *Consulate,* has now issued the eleventh, and the whole, it is said, will be completed by the author in fifteen parts. Price, 12½ cents each.

14.—*Journey to Iceland and through Sweden, Norway, etc.* Another of Putnam's new series, sent us by Morgan, and from the pen of that indomitable woman-traveler, Madame Pfeiffer, who has a passion to travel the world all over, and is doing it. We shall hereafter look more largely into the volume for our readers.

15.—*Fletcher's Notes on Slavery.* A very large, learned, and elaborate volume, which a friend has been kind enough to take from our desk, promising to give it such a review as its merits shall deserve. We hope it will be ready for our next.

16.—*Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution. No.* 21. By B. J. Lossing. Harper & Brothers. Morgan, New-Orleans.

In three or four numbers more this valuable and interesting work will be completed. The illustrations are beautiful as well as the letter-press. The author announces a new serial work of a similar character which will bring the subject of American history down to the close of the war of 1815, and another work on the French Dominion in North America.

17.—*The Way to Do Good*—Being the third and concluding vol. of Jacob Abbott's "Young Christian Series." 1. The Young Christian. 2. The Corner Stone. 3. The Way to do Good; very greatly improved and enlarged. Beautifully Illustrated, 12mo., muslin; $1 per vol. This series has been reprinted or translated in England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Germany, Holland, India, etc., and in the various foreign missionary stations. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

18.—*Falkenburg:* A Tale of the Rhine. By the author of "Mildred Vernon," "Germania," &c. New-York: Harper & Bros.

It captivates the attention of the reader with the uncommon spirit and gayety of its dialogue, and its great descriptive power. There is a charm in its delineations of character, which are executed with great skill, and show a true knowledge of the human heart. The scene is laid on the Rhine, but the principal characters are English, most of them, it is stated, being taken from real life. The moral is excellent; the love passages, which are numerous, are pure and refined; the conversations are carried on with great vivacity. No one could take up the book without completing its perusal.

19.—*Bleak House.* By Charles Dickens; with Illustrations. Part 1. We adopt the expressions of a northern critic.

"If the quality of this new work by Dickens be sustained throughout, we do not hesitate to say that it will be the best he has written. As a cotemporary has said, 'It has the ring of the genuine metal.' That tomb of so many hopes and fortunes, the Court of Chancery, supplies him with materials; and so far as the plan of the work is developed in this the first number, both plot and characters will be laden with interest. The superabundance of minute touches, which is, perhaps, Mr. Dickens's main defect, is dispensed with, and nothing lingers or loiters in the story. It cannot fail to find tens of thousands of readers."

20.—PERIODICALS.

Whig Review.
Democratic Review.
Western Journal and Civilian—St. Louis
Knickerbocker.
Plow, Loom and Anvil.
Bankers' Magazine—Boston.
American Journal of Science and Art.
Southern Quarterly Review.
Literary Messenger—Richmond, Va.
New-Orleans Medical Journal.
Charleston Medical Journal.
Southern Magazine—Mobile, monthly.
United States Economist.
New-Orleans Medical Register.

Most of these are standard American periodicals, of which nothing need be said in praise, with which we gladly exchange and gladly reciprocate acknowledgments.

In the last *Whig Review* there is a fine portrait of Judge Sharkey, with a biographical sketch, admirably prepared by his friend and admirer, (we think,) J. M. Chilton, Esq. One of the editors of the *Western Journal* was lately in New-Orleans, and we trust succeeded in making such arrangements as will eventually bring his valuable work into a respectable circulation throughout the southwest. It is published monthly, at $3 per annum. The *Bankers' Magazine*, for May, contains—

1. Prize Essays.
2. Lawson's History of Banking.
3. Savings Banks.
4. Bank Decisions in the States.
5. Bank Statistics.
6. Miscellaneous.

The *Southern Quarterly* opens with a paper by Brantz Mayer, upon Southern Agriculture, with numerous dissenting notes, by Mr. Simms. There are other able papers on the Battle-fields of Mexico, California Gold, etc., Domestic Histories of the South, etc. The *American Journal*, edited by Silliman & Dana, contains its usual *quantum* of scientific matter. This is really one of the first scientific periodicals in the world, and should be in the hands or library of every one professing the least regard for books or claims to learning. The *Southern Magazine*, edited by G. C. Clark, and published at the low rate of $1 per annum, is a fine literary periodical—certainly much better than the most of those that are ever flooding the South, of northern manufacture. Yet we *will* continue to love the Yankees and their literature, though we may abuse them for our pastime. We wish success to our neighbor. The *United States Economist* is a new journal, started in New-York, by T. P. Kettell, the McCulloch of America, published weekly, at $3 per annum. We hazard nothing in saying, that this is the ablest statistical journal in America, and that if Mr. Kettell will adhere to it, it will have a reputation equal to that of its English namesake. We have no language to express our admiration of its plan and its execution. The *New-Orleans Medical Register* has reached eight monthly numbers. It is edited by Dr. Axson, who is one of the most scientific, meritorious, and rising practitioners of the "healing art" in New-Orleans.

PAMPHLETS, ADDRESSES, REPORTS, &C.

21.—*Address before the Alumni of the College of Charleston.* By William P. Miles, Anniversary Orator, 1852.

Professor Miles has many sound views of liberty and government; recognising in the one something distinct from mere "license," and in the other not necessarily "republican forms." Sound and good government may exist without these. Indeed they are not everywhere and at all times the best. He developes the idea of Mr. Calhoun, who said that men were not "*born*" but *educated* to freedom. The address is particularly severe upon Mr. Kossuth and his adherents, but we cannot go quite so far as to adopt the stern and selfish rule that it inculcates. Though a case may not be presented *now* sufficient to justify the intervention of our government, it is safer to lay down no general rules, but to let each case as it comes up be decided upon its own merits. We could easily frame a contingency in European politics when, even upon the "selfish" policy, intervention might be *prudence*, and we are far from falling into that illiberal and unstatesmanlike dogma, that in the affairs of the great family of nations, the one which is growing to be the most potential of them all, shall forever remain shut in by Chinese walls. We doubt if this was the doctrine of Washington and his Cabinet, or of the "early Presidents." We are sure that the speech of Mr. Soule, in the Senate, (though we do not subscribe to all of it,) must shake such an opinion.

22.—*Discourse to the Graduating Class of the College of Charleston:* By Prof. J. W. Miles, 1852.

A very philosophical essay upon the grounds of morals, and a very practical application of the rules of ethical science. Mr. Miles is a theologian, imbued with much of the German spirit and lore, and has already, though a young man, attained to an enviable rank in scholarship.

23.—*Address before the Medical State Society of Louisiana:* By E. H. Barton, M. D.

There are many curious and interesting things in this address, and we ought to review it elaborately. It opens with the recommendation of a registry system for the state, and argues the matter ably. The early medical history of Louisiana—origin of the medical college—changes of the diseases in the state follow. We have speculations upon the health of New-Orleans, and what would have been the result had the advice given by medical men 30 years ago been followed, &c., &c.

24.—*Catalogue of the Memphis Medical School.*

There were 52 matriculants and 16 graduates last year Attached to the catalogue is an interesting address, by Prof. Quintard, upon the *True Physician.*

25.—*Report—Macon and Savannah Railroad.*

26.—*Report—East Tennessee and Virginia Rail-road.*

27.—*Alabama and Mississippi Rail-road.*

28.—*Mr. Cabell on Virginia Improvements.*

29.—*Rep. Alabama and Tennessee R.R.*

30.—*Rep. James River and Kanawha R.R.*

These are all valuable documents, which will be consulted and quoted from by us from time to time in the progress of our rail-road researches; but as our readers are complaining, important as the subject is, that we are cramming them too much, we must necessarily dismount from our hobby occasionally.

31.—*Hungary in* 1851; with an experience of the Austrian Police. By Charles Loring Brace. Charles Scribner, New-York. T. L. White, New-Orleans.

The author was immured in an Austrian dungeon, and therefore speaks of "experiences." He has illustrated his work with a map and many fine lithographs, and gives a very full history of the government, laws, &c., of Hungary, together with the state of manners, morals, society, &c., now existing. There are many interesting statistics, which we shall hereafter draw upon much more at length.

32.—*Historical Account of St. Thomas,* West Indies; with incidental notices of St. Croix and St. Johns.

This work is from the pen of John P. Knox; is published by Scribner, and for sale by White, New-Orleans. It treats of the rise and progress of the island in commerce; its missions and churches; its climate and adaptation to invalids; geological structure, natural history and botany. It also treats at length of emancipation and the present condition of the negroes in the islands. The author concludes—"Vagrancy is the curse of nearly all the English West India islands." * * * * * *

"These live principally by their vices, and are thus plunging themselves into greater degradation, poverty and suffering." P. 124.

33.—*The Works of Stephen Olin, D. D., LL.D.*, late President of the Wesleyan University.

We have received two volumes from Mr. Scribner, through T. L. White, of New-Orleans. Dr. Olin had the reputation of being one of the most eloquent and gifted men in America, though he had published little except a very interesting book of travels in Europe. The *first* volume contains sermons selected from his manuscripts—the *second*, lectures written a few months before his death. The lectures are mainly upon the subject of Christian education. Four of them are to the graduating classes of the University. There are also many missionary addresses, &c., breathing the intense zeal of the author for the spiritual welfare of his fellow-man.

34.—*Ivar, or the Skjuts Boy:* a Romance, by Miss Carlen, from the Swedish.

In the literary circles of her own country, Miss Carlen is considered superior to Frederika Bremer, and her works are sought for with great avidity.

35.—*The Household of Sir Thomas More.*

A quaint but beautiful production, written in fine old English, with all the simplicity and softness imaginable, and purporting to be by the daughter of the great Sir Thomas. Of course, it is all imaginary; but he who could put down the book without admiring the author, must have little of romance or nature in him. (From White, New-Orleans.)

36.—*Anthon's Grecian Antiquities*; with illustrations.

Such a work was needed for schools and colleges, as those in use were very meagre, and reflected none of the light which the later explorations have developed. It is a companion for the Roman Antiquities, by the same author. New-York: Harper & Brothers. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

37.—NOTES.

We thank Lieut. M. F. Maury for a memorial, prepared by him, to the Congress of the United States, and shall refer to it again hereafter, asking that Norfolk, or Charleston, or some other Southern Atlantic port, may be made the terminus of a line of United States mail steam-ships to Para, touching at Porto Rico, and such other West India Islands as may be agreed upon.

A SOUTHERN RIVAL FOR NEW-YORK.

Baltimore is seeking this position. We are glad of it; and copy from the *Sun* a notice of a meeting proposed to be held by her merchants and leading citizens. (*Aside*—We have long been aiming for such results, but no citizen of Baltimore ever sustained us or the Review.)

"Our city being in the direct line of communication with the Southern states generally, and nearer to them than any other of the same peculiar commercial character and extent, is naturally looked to by the citizens of those states as a point with which it might be desirable to establish more extended relations of trade."

LATEST PUBLICATIONS

Received at J. C. Morgan's New-Orleans Literary Depot, Exchange Place, adjoining the Post-Office.

The Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Illustrated with numerous maps and engravings. Arranged by J. J. Williams, Assistant-Engineer. 1 vol., 8vo.
The History of Modern Philosophy. By M. Victor Cousin. 2 vols., 8vo.
Men and Women of the Eighteenth Century. By Arsene Houssayer. 2 vols., 12mo.
A Buckeye Abroad; or Wanderings in Europe and in the Orient. By Samuel S. Cox. 1 vol., 12mo.
Essays on Life, Sleep, and Pain. By Samuel Henry Dickinson, M.D. 1 vol., 12mo.
The World Here and There. From Dickens' Household Words. 1 vol., 12mo.
Walks and Talks of an American Farmer in England. 1 vol., 12mo.
The Book of Ballads. Edited by Bon Gaultier. 1 vol., 12mo.
Latham's Hand-Book of the English Language. 1 vol., 12mo.
Redding on Wines; a History and Description of Modern Wines. By Cyrus Redding. 1 vol., 12mo.
Richardson's Arctic Expedition in Search of Sir John Franklin. 1 vol., 12mo.
Tales and Traditions of Hungary. By Theresa Pulsky. 1 vol., 12mo.
Recollections of a Literary Life. By Miss Mitford. 1 vol., 12mo.
The Maiden and Married Life of Mary Powell, afterwards Mistress Milton.
The Yellow-Plush Papers. By Thackeray.
The Approaching Crisis; being a review of Dr. Bushnell's Lecture on Supernaturalism. By Andrew Jackson Davis.
The American Bird Fancier; considered with reference to the Breeding, Rearing, Feeding, Management, and Peculiarities of Cage Birds. By D. J. Brown.
Bancroft's History of the United States. Vol. 4.
Nicaragua; its People, Scenery, Monuments, and the Proposed Interoceanic Canal. With numerous original maps and illustrations. By E. G. Squier. 2 vols., 8vo.
The History of Alabama, and Incidentally of Georgia and Mississippi, from the Earliest Period. By Albert James Pickett.
Memoirs of Margaret Fuller Ossoli. 2 vols., 12mo.
Lectures and Miscellanies. By Henry James. 1 vol., 12mo.
Isa; a Pilgrimage. By Caroline Cheesebro.
The Way to do Good. By Jacob Abbott. New edition. 1 vol. 12mo.
Travels in Tartary, Thibet, and China, during the years 1844, 1845, and 1846. By M. Huc.
Examinations of Drugs, Medicines, and Chemicals, as to their Purity and Adulterations. By C. H. Pierce, M.D.
Essays from the London Times; a Collection of Personal and Historical Sketches. 1 vol., 12mo.

NOVELS.

School for Husbands. By Lady Bulwer.
Head of the Family. By the Author of Olive, &c.
Count of Monte Leone; or the Spy in Society.
Ravenscliffe. By Mrs. Marsh.
Marcus Warland. By Caroline Lee Hentz.
The Use of Sunshine. By the Author of the Maiden Aunt.
Margaret Cecil; or I can because I ought.
As Good as a Comedy; or the Tennesseean's Story.
Darien; or the Merchant Prince. By Eliot Warburton.
A Story without a Name. By G. P. R James.
Self-Deception; or a History of the Human Heart. By Mrs. Ellis.
Madeleine; a Tale of Auvergne. By Julia Kavanagh.
Hearts Unveiled; or I knew you would like him. By S. E. Seymour.
Rosalie Dupont. By Emerson Bennett.
The Seven Brothers of Wyoming.
The Swamp Steed; or Marion and his Merry Men.
Malice; a Tale of Real Life. By J. B. Alexander.
Falkenburg; a Tale of the Rhine.
Bleak House. By Chas. Dickens. No. 1.
Florence; or the Fatal Vow. By Eliza A. Dupuy.

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ART. I.—THE HISTORY, CONDITION, AND RESOURCES OF CANADA.[*]

EXTENT OF THE COUNTRY—EARLY HISTORY UNDER THE FRENCH—THE PROVINCE UNDER THE RULE OF THE ENGLISH—CANADA UNDER "RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT"—GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS, CLIMATE AND SOIL—ANIMALS AND NATURAL PRODUCTIONS—AMOUNT AND CHARACTER OF THE POPULATION—AGRICULTURE—MANUFACTURES AND SHIPPING—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS—REVENUE AND PUBLIC DEBTS—BANKS—EDUCATION, ETC. ETC.

THE British possessions on this continent constitute about one-third of North America: occupying an area of some 2,300,000 square miles, a space two-thirds as large as that covered by the whole of Europe. These territories lie immediately north of the United States, including eastwardly the islands of Newfoundland and Breton on the Atlantic coast, and extending on the west to the possessions of Russia. This immense area is divided into five provinces, Newfoundland, New-Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Canada, and New-Britain; of which Canada, the second in size, is, and probably always will be, the first in importance. It contains about 350,000 square miles, and is bounded on the north by a range of hills, which separates it from the territory of the Hudson's Bay Company; on the east, by Labrador, the Gulf of St. Lawrence and New-Brunswick; on the south, by the United States; and on the west, by Lake Superior, and a line running northwardly from this lake to Hudson's Bay. It may be represented in general terms as lying between the meridians of 57° 50' and 90° west, and the parallels of 42° and 52° north, and stretching about 1,300 miles from east to west, and from 300 to 700 from north to south.

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[*] 1. A Historical and Descriptive Account of British America, by Hugh Murray, F. R. S. E. 3 vols. Edinburgh. 1839.
2. The Conquest of Canada, by the author of "Hochelaga." 2 vols. Harper & Brothers. New-York. 1850.
3. Rule and Misrule of the English in America, by Judge Halliburton. New-York: Harper & Brothers. 1851.

Early History under the French.—Five hundred years before Columbus reached the western world, America was discovered by *Biorn Heriolson*, a native of Iceland; and from this time, (1001,) during two centuries, repeated visits were made to its northern coasts by Scandinavian voyagers. Civilized Europe, however, knew not of the discovery. After the expiration of that period, these Scandinavian voyages ceased, and thenceforth North America was visited by no European until the 24th of June, 1497, when John Cabot, an enterprising navigator of Venice, then in the employ of Henry VII. of England, discovered the coast of Labrador. Soon afterwards, in 1500, Gaspar Cortereal, a Portuguese, discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence; of which Jean Denys, a Frenchman, prepared a map in 1506. France began now to take an interest in the new world; and under the patronage of its king, Francis I., Verazzano, a Florentine, surveyed (1523–24) nearly all the eastern coast of North America. In April, 1534, the same monarch sent out *Jacques Cartier* with a colony to make a settlement in the unexplored west. In July following he entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and in the same month formally took possession of the country in the name of the French king. No settlement, however, was then made; yet this was the beginning of the French rule in the province of Canada. In October of the following year, Cartier ascended the St. Lawrence as far as the Indian village of Hochelaga, the site of the present city of Montreal; and here, for the first time, a European heard from the natives of the great lakes and of the mighty Mississippi. The contests of Francis I. with Charles V., of Germany, and the civil wars which desolated France during the latter half of the 16th century, put an effectual stop to all efforts on the part of that kingdom to effect a settlement in Canada, or to prosecute its discoveries in America. But the spirit of enterprise was again revived under the sway of Henry IV.; and again Canada was sought by French adventurers. Trading companies and private individuals, eager for gain, fitted out expeditions for carrying on the fur trade; and this was prosecuted with success. Efforts were now made to establish trading posts; and on the 3d of July, 1608, *Samuel de Champlain*, the lieutenant of Sieur de Monts, arrived at the site of Quebec, where he at once determined to lay the foundation of the French empire in the west. Such was the origin of *New France*, for so the settlement was afterwards designated by its original founders. Twelve years subsequently the Pilgrims made their landing at Plymouth.

The origin of the appellation *Canada* is a subject of dispute. Some derive it from the Spanish "*aca nada*"—*here is nothing*; in which they follow an old Castilian tradition; according to which the Spanish visited the country before the French, and, finding no mines as they had hoped, in their disappointment uttered this exclamation. The natives having caught the sound, repeated it to the next Europeans who arrived; and they took it to be the proper Indian appellation of the country. The derivation is evidently fanciful. Other explanations of the term equally improbable are given by historians. The most likely derivation is that adduced by Charlevoix in his *Histoire de la Nouvelle France*, (vol. I. p. 13, note,) who says: "D' autres dérivent ce nom du mot Iroquois '*Kannata*,' qui se prononce *Cannada*, et signifie *un amas de cabanes*." The word meant, then, in the Indian tongue, *a collection of cabins*, i. e. *a village;* and it is so used in Brandt's translation of Matthew's Gospel into the Mohawk language. The early discoverers hearing the term frequently employed by the natives, naturally thought it the name of the country; though it is not likely that at this early period Canada was distinguished by any general appellation.

After the founding of Quebec, the French applied themselves to extending their knowledge of the country in which they had effected a settlement. The main objects of those who controlled the infant colony were trade with the natives and their conversion to the Christian faith. The cultivation of the earth was not only considered of secondary importance, but was attended to only so far as was necessary to the supply of the immediate wants of the settlers. Nor in these respects did there afterwards take place any material change in the policy and habits of the colony, until it passed, in the following century, from the hands of the French to the rule of the English. From the first, Jesuit missionaries were engaged in propagating the Catholic religion among the Indians of Canada; and they received much aid and sympathy in their undertaking from the pious and charitable of their native land. Alone, or in pairs, agreeably to the directions given by Christ to the Seventy, they traversed the lone wilderness, bearing with them the tidings of salvation. In 1634, two priests of this order made a settlement on the shores of Lake Huron; and, in 1641, others had advanced as far as the falls of St. Mary. Meanwhile, the Jesuit influence had been increasing in Quebec. A college was founded in that city in 1635 by De Rohaut, and placed under their control; and, soon after, an Ursuline convent was established, and a hospital for the sick and poor, both of which were under Catholic direction. In a few years the exercise of any religion but the Catholic was prohibited by law. As early as 1665, a house of worship was erected by father Allonez, near the west end of Lake Superior; and here he preached to the Indians in the Algonquin tongue.

What success these missionaries met with in a religious point of view, cannot be readily determined. It is certain, however, that they acquired great influence among the natives by their prudent and conciliatory conduct; and to this influence are attributable in no small degree, it is thought, the ravages which were made by hostile Indians during the first part of the 18th century upon the people and territory of New-England. The policy of the Jesuits, therefore, was political as well as religious. They were influential, accordingly, in persuading the native tribes to acknowledge the supremacy of the French monarch. In 1671, a large number of chiefs from the sources of the Mississippi, Red River and St. Lawrence, met the deputies of the king at the Falls of St. Mary, and, by common consent, placed themselves and their people under his protection. Seeking to extend their dominions still farther, the French government commissioned Marquette and Joliet, in 1673, to discover the Mississippi. How they did so, and what adventures they met with in their descent of that river as far as the mouth of the Arkansas, has been often told with eloquent pen. Somewhat later, the French found their way by sea to the mouth of the river; and on this discovery, and the exploration of Marquette, was founded the claim which they subsequently urged to the valleys of the Mississippi and Ohio, and all the territory lying to the northwest of that region.

For nearly one hundred years after the discovery of the Mississippi, there occurred no change of importance either in the political or social affairs of Canada. The Indians, who had been at first annoying, were at length conciliated, and united with the French against the colonists from England. Few immigrants came over from France; whilst those who were already settled in the country were occupied either as missionaries, in hunting, in fishing, or in the cultivation of small feudal farms. From these farms their occupants derived just enough to afford them subsistence. There was little prospect of advantage held out to emigrants from the mother country. The land of the province was granted to subjects by the king upon feudal tenure, as was customary in Europe at the time of the discovery of Canada. Tracts of land of all sizes, from one square mile to one hundred or more, were conferred by the king on private individuals, and these were styled seigniories. The seigniors were bound to concede land to immigrants, on application, on condition that they would pay a small rent and perform certain feudal duties and services. On the tenant's death, his children inherited his land in equal shares, subject to the same conditions; and so, when the seignior, or lord, deceased, his territories descended to his children, one half to the eldest son, while the other half was distributed in equal shares between him and his brothers and sisters. A seigniory might be sold; but the king was entitled to one-fifth of its price, one-third of which, however, was relinquished in case of immediate payment. Besides the lands thus owned, there were others which constituted endowments for the established Catholic Church; and yet these were reserved for state purposes. All the grants of land made in Canada, while it continued a French province, were made upon this uniform plan; and the system was, very unfortunately, maintained among the French population even after the conquest by the British. The influence of this feudal tenure was highly injurious to the prosperity of the colony, for it operated, among the French settlers, as a check upon industry and enterprise. Since that conquest, however, the new lands granted have not been given upon this plan, but a clear title has been made to the purchaser. It has happened, consequently, that the portion of the territory which has been settled since the transferrence of the province to England, has advanced much more rapidly than the other in prosperity and internal improvement. Public opinion has long been opposed to these feudal tenures; and such as now exist will, no doubt, at an early period, be superseded by titles more in accordance with the progressive ideas of the age.

The Province under the Rule of the English.—From the beginning of the 18th century the French and English colonies in America struggled for pre-eminence in North America, as their parent nations were doing on the battle-fields of Europe. English villages were attacked and destroyed by the Canadians and their allies the Indians, and these acts were retaliated in kind by the English colonists. Mutual invasions were made with various success, until, finally, on the 14th of September, 1759, Quebec was taken by the British under General Wolfe. In September of the following year, the surrender of Montreal completed the subjugation of Canada, and the whole territory was formally ceded to England in 1763, by the treaty of Paris. Such was the end of the French domination in the northern part of North America. During the continuance of her power, France had ruled the province with maternal sway. Her resources and treasures were spent upon the colony, and her best officers were sent out to administer the government. Yet was she unsuccessful in developing the hidden resources of the country; for she had adopted a policy which, though kind and in many respects beneficial, was upon the whole unfitted for drawing out the strength of an infant colony. Military governments were fixed at Montreal, at Three Rivers and at Quebec, upon which, subject to the control of the French minister of marine, devolved the administration, civil as well as military, of the province. A governor and an intendant were the heads of the government. Free admission was granted to colonists from every country; a policy more liberal than that adopted by other European states, which then controlled settlements in America. Commerce, however, was fettered, because it was confined to chartered monopolies. Popular rights, too, were wholly unacknowledged. All power was centred in the government. The state was all, the people nothing; and hence, when the state fell, the people passed without a murmur from the power of France to the control of her hereditary enemy.

From the time of the conquest until 1774, Canada was ruled by an English governor and council, with *English law*, administered solely in the *English language*; but from 1774 to 1791 the province was governed by the same functionaries, administering English *criminal* but French *civil* law. In 1791, owing to troubles experienced in carrying on the government, Canada was divided by the so-called Constitution Act (31st Geo. III., c. 31) into two provinces, Upper and Lower. A similar form of government was established in each, but its administrations differed in some particulars. In the upper province, where the English colonists were most numerous, the new constitution worked well, and was not specially complained of until a comparatively late period in its history. In the lower province, however, where the French settlers were stronger than the English, the new arrangement was a source of disquiet and turmoil from its first institution. The government was composed, according to the act of parliament, of a governor, and an executive council of eleven members appointed by the crown; a legislative council, consisting of 15 members, (afterwards raised to 40,) also appointed by the crown; and an assembly, or house of commons, composed of 50 members, (subsequently increased to 88,) elected by the people of the province upon the basis of population. At the first meeting of the assembly, (Dec. 17, 1792,) it was found that 35 of its members were French and only 15 English, a minority which was at a later period reduced to *three*. Of course, French influence was predominant in the assembly. The other two estates, however, were thoroughly English. Hence arose, almost from the outset, a most violent contention between the different branches of the legislature, the council striving to retain the power with which it had been vested by parliament, and the assembly straining every nerve to circumscribe the privileges of the council and governor, and make itself independent of their control. It would be tedious to trace the progress of this struggle from its commencement to the catastrophe in 1837, when Lower Canada broke out into rebellion. Suffice it to say, that the assembly obtained by degrees some of the powers which had been granted to the other estates of the government, and from time to time had its demands for increased privileges complied with by the mother country, and always with apparent readiness and liberality. Finally, however, tired of concession, the home government refused to yield any further to the increasingly clamorous, and, in some respects, unreasonable demands of the assembly. To have yielded would have been in effect to have surrendered the whole government of the province; a step which England was not prepared to take, and which, considering the limited education of the French Canadians, and their general want of preparation for self-government, and considering also the equitable rights of the English colonists who (or their ancestors) had settled in the province under the distinct assurance of being ruled *according to the laws of England*—would not, all things taken into account, have been either prudent or just. The assembly refusing, during several years, to make appropriation for administering the government, and persisting to do so after repeated remonstrances from the mother country, the English parliament passed resolutions providing for the current civil expenses independent of and contrary to the action of that branch of the provincial legislature. Rebellion followed; but in a short time it was put down by military force, the power of England triumphing in the contest.

There can be no question that England, when matters had reached the crisis just noticed, followed the only course which could have preserved her dominion over Lower Canada; yet it is equally certain that all the troubles which for so many years agitated that province, were due to the unwise act passed by the British parliament of 1791, by which a representative assembly was established. The act was unwise in the first place, because, if the province was to be preserved as a British possession, it should have been ruled by English laws and in the English language, in order that the French and English inhabitants might, in time, have become a united and homogeneous people. The consequence of the course which was followed was inevitable; the two races by which the colony was inhabited, having no powerful bond of union, were kept by the force of previous prejudices distinct from and hostile to each other, as they are to the present day. It was unwise, furthermore, because it was impossible that an assembly chosen by a people, the great majority of whom were French by descent, by habits and by education, could act for any length of time, or on any important subject, in harmony with a legislative council composed mainly of English settlers and nominated by the crown. It was unwise, finally, because the French Canadians had no experience in the art of self-government, and were at that time, if they are not now, unfitted for so important a trust. "They were, without doubt," says Halliburton, "the most ignorant inhabitants of any portion of America; but few of them could either read or write. They were even unacquainted with the common operations of husbandry, preferring the listless idleness engendered by a fertile soil, that yielded its productions without the aid of art, to the laborious operations of the enterprising Anglo-Saxons. Accustomed to implicit obedience, they saved themselves the trouble of thinking, and yielded their judgment to their leaders and their conscience to their priests. Yet to such a people was entrusted the power not only of making laws, but of governing the English. The experience of all ages was against the experiment." Nor was "the experience of all ages" fallacious in this instance. The French, though ruled with a more than paternal sway, became more and more dissatisfied with the home government, and, as each demand was complied with by the parliament and each alleged grievance redressed, became more and more clamorous for still further concessions. Warned by her experience in the case of the United States, England treated Canada with more mildness than any other colony had up to that time experienced, resigning the right of taxation, (1788,) though compelled to contribute of her own means to the support of the province, and leaving all its internal affairs, commerce excepted, to the regulation of the provincial legislature. Complaints were listened to with respect by the British parliament, and honest efforts made to remove every cause of dissatisfaction, real or imaginary; and it was only when the whole machinery of government was thrown into disorder, and its movements stopped by the provincial assembly, that the parliament interposed to save the country from anarchy and civil war.

The rebellion which had been partially communicated to Upper Canada having been put down with little effort, the British parliament attempted anew the construction of a government. What the Canadians had failed to gain as malcontents, they now gained as rebels reduced to subjection. After various preliminary investigations and discussions, the two provinces of Canada were united in 1841, chiefly through the representations and influence of the viceroy, Lord Durham, into one government, under one legislature. By this *Act of Reunion*, as it is called, important changes were made in the constitution, and a "responsible government" introduced. The governor was deprived of the patronage which had pertained to his office under the old *regime*, and this patronage was transferred to the leader of the assembly, while the governor's veto was made of little or no effect; the legislative council was made "a mere duplicate of the assembly," and the laws passed by the provincial legislature thus constituted, were subjected no longer, as before, to a rigid examination in England before they received the sanction of the king, but only to a merely nominal surveillance. In a word, the legislature was made independent in all but the name. A government more democratic, in fact, than that of the United States, was established; while that admirable system of checks and balances which regulates our institutions had no counterpart in the new administration.

Canada under "Responsible Government."—Having gained the object for which they had for years been striving, or what was equivalent to it, the French party, which, of course, was predominant, under the working, and according to the provisions of the new constitution, ceased to fill the province with confusion and alarm. And now a singular and yet not an unnatural phenomenon occurred. The English settlers, who had previously been the staunchest loyalists, and had continued steadfast and unshrinking in their adherence to the mother country, began to murmur against the conduct of the home government. They asserted, and not without reason, that they were in effect not represented in the new legislature; for the majority of the French party was too overwhelming to allow of successful resistance, on their part, to any measure which their enemies might please to propose, or to any law they might please to enact. Before, they could appeal to the king or to the parliament; but now, they declared, they had, though nominally free, no voice in managing the affairs of their country, and no means of redress when oppressed by the unjust and one-sided enactments of their political opponents. It was vain to appeal to the governor, for his veto was virtually powerless. To ask redress of the legislative council was equally vain, for it was but an echo of the assembly, and this latter body was under the control of the French representatives. Vain was it, finally, to appeal to the monarch or to parliament, for to such petitions one uniform answer was returned: "You have a responsible government; we cannot interfere. It is a local matter; you must settle it yourselves."

He knows but little of the science of political economy, who supposes that government is established for the good of the majority solely. It is founded for the greatest good, not of the greatest number, but *of all*—the minority as well as the majority. Unquestionably, when in a state it becomes necessary that some of its members should lie under disabilities, it is better, other things being equal, that the minority rather than the majority should suffer. But if the interests of all *can* be secured, and yet only those of the greater number *are* actually regarded, irrespective of the feelings and rights of the minority, then and there, call the state by what name you please, a monarchy or a democracy, you have a despotism. Situated as they were under the new constitution—a helpless minority ruled by an inconsiderate majority—the English residents despaired of obtaining a just influence in the management of their country's affairs. Thrown off, as they seemed to be, by the mother country, they looked elsewhere for support. No means of relieving themselves from French control appeared so likely to succeed, as the project which they, though loyalist before the Union, started a few years since, (1849,) and which was then discussed, as it is even now, with not a little feeling, as well by the press of this country as by that of Canada and England. The proposed plan is *the annexation of Canada to the United States.*

Among the Canadians, the idea of annexation to this country arose among, and first found favor with the English settlers; but the proposition is not countenanced by them alone. Their opponents, the French, entertain, it is ascertained, a similar wish, though of course their motives are different. They fear a threatened league of all the British North American provinces, which, if made, would deprive them of their power, and, rather than this, they would have annexation. Thus affairs stand in Canada, unsettled, and, to a strong though not the dominant party in the state, highly unsatisfactory. A change of some sort must come at no very distant day. England, it is probable, cannot, and, if the wishes of some of her statesmen be followed, *will not* long continue to exercise even the small remnant of authority which she has retained over the province. Whenever she withdraws her supervision, Canada will either form a separate and distinct government in North America, or it will become a constituent element of our Union. But, will England surrender her claims without a struggle? If she should do so, can Canada escape civil convulsion, in case she make the attempt to form herself into an independent power? If she should apply for entrance into this already overgrown confederacy, can she be received without endangering the whole framework—the very existence of our government? These, it will be seen, are momentous questions, and upon their correct solution may depend, before many years have passed away, the most momentous consequences.*

Geographical Divisions, Climate and Soil.—The province of Canada is now divided, geographically, into Canada East and Canada West, corresponding respectively to the Upper and Lower Canada of the period preceding the Union. Canada East is comprised between the parallels of 45° and 52° north, and between the meridians 59° 50′ and 80° 06′ west, and contains about 160,000,000 of acres. That part of it which lies east of the river Chaudiere and south of the St. Lawrence, is the least fertile of the whole, much of it being unfit for cultivation. That part, on the other hand, which lies west of the Chaudiere as far as St. Regis, is composed of excellent land, and, bordering as it does on the United States, is improving, and is being settled more rapidly than any part of the lower province. That large tract, moreover, which is situated northwest of Montreal and east of the Ottawa, (the western boundary of the province,) is said to be even more fertile. The climate of this division is colder than that of the western under the same parallel, the mercury sometimes falling in winter at Quebec to 30° below zero. The winter, beginning in November, lasts five months, during which time the snow is usually four feet deep in the woods. When it does break up, the approach of summer is very rapid, and vegetation, commencing early, advances rapidly to perfection. All kinds of grain come to maturity, though the crops of most are not so abundant as they are in more southern climates. The common fruits are readily raised as high up as Quebec, where, however, cold as the winters are, the thermometer sometimes rises in summer as high as 100° above zero.

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* An interesting article on the subject of Canadian Annexation appeared in this Review, Oct., 1850. It may be consulted with advantage, though the writer does not seem to have written from reliable information respecting the relation of the British to the French party in the lower province previous to the rebellion of 1837, nor to have been correctly informed as to the origin and cause of that melancholy outbreak.

Canada West is comprised between the parallels 41° and 49° north, and the meridian 74° and 117° west, and contains about 64,000,000 acres. The true period of the settlement of this province was 1783, at the close of the American war of independence, when a number of British loyalists from this country took refuge here, and had lands assigned them, on highly favorable terms, by the home government. In 1791, it was created, as has been seen, a separate province, at which time it contained, by computation, 10,000 inhabitants. York, now the flourishing city of Toronto, on Lake Ontario, was founded three years afterwards, and made the seat of government, and colonists from Great Britain were encouraged to come into the province and make a settlement. Emigration did not commence on a large scale till 1803, since which time it has continued to flow in without cessation, this division being naturally preferred by Englishmen to Canada East, in which French influence was predominant. In 1811, the province contained 9,623 persons who paid taxes, from which it is estimated that the entire population was then about eighty thousand. The climate is not so cold as in the eastern division, and the province contains both a larger extent of fertile land, as well as tracts more productive. Most of the soil equals the best lands of New-York and Ohio, and some of it is even superior. Near Toronto, 100 bushels of wheat have been raised upon a single acre. It is stated on good authority, that the lands lying between the lakes, of Huron on the one side, and Erie and Ontario on the other, are sufficiently productive to supply all Europe with grain, "besides producing cattle and sheep, hemp and flax, and yielding iron, copper, lead, lime, marl and gypsum; and that they are capable of supporting, by agricultural pursuits alone, at least five millions of additional inhabitants." Of this tract, and of the western district generally, a somewhat enthusiastic writer, speaking after personal examination, remarks: "In no portion of Canada could horticulture, floriculture, and agriculture, be prosecuted with more certainty of success than in it. Peaches, plums, pears, apples, melons, grapes, Indian corn, tobacco, and vegetables of every description, grow in abundance, with a luxuriousness that is truly astonishing; and the day cannot be remote when such obvious advantages will attract attention."

Animals and Natural Productions.—Among wild animals found in Canada may be enumerated the elk, fallow deer, bear, wolf, fox, wild-cat, raccoon, beaver, martin, otter, hare, squirrel, and, in the south, the buffalo and the roebuck. Some of these, however, are being rapidly exterminated by hunters, and by the advance of civilization. Among birds are found wild ducks, geese, and other water-fowls, pigeons, the quail, partridge, turkey, and various kinds of grouse. Fish abound in the rivers and lakes, among which are the sturgeon, salmon and herring.

Canada is covered with forests, among the trees growing in which are firs, pines, the white cedar, maple, birch, ash, bass wood, hickory, cherry, and the oak. Among the smaller plants are found a kind of rice, called *zizania aquatica*, which grows in the swamps, ginseng, various species of wild berries, and the lily, violet, and other flowers. The live oak, which is produced in the southern part of the country, is said to be adapted to ship-building; but not the other kinds of the same tree which are found in Canada. Such trees as are useful for no other purpose supply material to the pot and pearl-ash manufactories. The maple tree (*acer saccharinum*) is abundant, and yields an excellent sugar, of which large quantities are yearly raised in the province. The sugar is obtained by inserting a small cane shoot into an incision, made by an axe or with an auger, in the bark of the tree, in the spring, when the sap is rising; along which tube the sap is conducted, and from which it falls into a wooden trough placed beneath. The tree continues to flow about a month. The sap is boiled twice, during the last process being carefully skimmed and cleared from whatever impurities may rise to the surface. It is then left to cool, by which means it is formed into hard cakes, ready for use or for the market. The amount of maple sugar manufactured in Canada West in 1848, is stated to have been 4,160,667 lbs., or about six pounds to every inhabitant. Valued at the average market price, this year's production was worth more than $200,000.

Amount and Character of the Population.—Previous to the year 1760, all those who emigrated to Canada were of French origin, and they came principally from Normandy. In 1676, Canada East contained about 8,000 inhabitants; in 1700, 15,000; in 1714, 26,904; and in 1760, the year above mentioned, when the French immigration ceased, about 65,000. The census of 1784 gave 113,000; of 1825, 423,630; of 1831, 511,917; of 1844, 699,806; of 1848, 768,344, an increase in twenty-three years of 334,704; at which rate the population would be doubled in thirty years. The greater part of this increase was due to births alone, for there has been comparatively little immigration into this division of the province since the control of the country passed from the hands of France. In 1787, a number of English loyalists came in from the United States; and, at a subsequent period, there took place still further emigration from this country, particularly from Vermont. It is by these men that the resources of Canada East have been chiefly developed: they possess the best cultivated farms in the district, are owners of at least half of the more valuable seigniories, and are the main conductors of the retail trade, and of the internal and foreign commerce. The other, and much the larger portion of the inhabitants, are of French descent, and retain the habits and modes of thought of their ancestors. Neither the conquest, nor the time which has since elapsed, nor the example of their more enterprising fellow-citizens, has wrought any essential change in their character. They are, as a people, frugal, honest, industrious, and hospitable; cheerful in temperament, social and polite in their manners, but uneducated, tenacious of old customs, and unprogressive. There are but few of them who are wholly dependent on wages for their support; the most own small farms upon which they labor with the same kind of implements used by their ancestors a century ago. Only a few families own any large amount of property, and even then it is not very valuable. Yet the people live happy and contented, neither wanting nor abounding. Their religion is the Catholic, and the education which they receive is acquired under the direction of Catholics, the clergy among whom are supported by endowments and tithes granted before the conquest, and guaranteed by express stipulation in the treaty then made between England and France.

In 1845, according to the census then taken, the Church of Rome included within its pale 571,714 of the population; the Episcopalians had 43,274; the Scotch Presbyterians, 26,725; other Presbyterians, 5,231; the Methodists, 15,853; the Baptists, 4,067.

The time of the settlement of Canada West, and its population in 1811, have already been mentioned. The number of inhabitants which it contained, in 1825, was 158,027; in 1835, 336,000; in 1848, 723,292, an increase in twenty-three years of 565,265, the population doubling itself once in about eleven years. Of this population 166,340 belonged to the Church of England; 119,810 to that of Rome; 148,182 were Scotch or other Presbyterians; 137,752 Methodists; 28,053 Baptists; 7,186 Lutherans; and 115,969 belonged to no denomination. One seventh of the ungranted lands in this district have been set apart for religious purposes, and are called "Clergy Reserves." The income thus arising is apportioned to the Church of England two-fifths; to the Church of Rome, that of Scotland and the Wesleyan Methodists, each one-fifth. Other sects are supported by their congregations, as the Church of England is in Canada East. Thus the joint population of the two districts amounted in 1848 to 1,491,626, or in round numbers, *one and a half millions;* of whom 600,000 are descendants of the French; 550,000 come from Great Britain; 250,000 from Ireland; 60,000 from the United States; and 40,000 from the Continent of Europe. If the relative rates of the increase of population in the two districts have continued unchanged up to the present time, Canada West has now a population of 859,000; Canada East of 840,000, making a total of 1,699,000. From this it would seem that the western province is now ahead of the eastern. At the same rate of increase, Canada West will contain, in 1862, 1,259,000; while Canada East will contain only 1,015,000. Indeed, taking into account the continued increase of immigration into the western province, it is highly probable that in the year 1862 it will have one million and a half of inhabitants, or about one-third more than Canada East.

Comparing the increase of the population in the two provinces of Canada during ten years with that of Great Britain and that of the United States, we have in Great Britain (1831–41) an increase of 1·11 per cent.; in the United States (1830–40) 3·26 per cent.; in Canada East (1834–44) 3·18 per cent.; in Canada West (1832–42) 8·61 per cent. The proportion of deaf and dumb among the inhabitants of Canada is about as *one* to 957, which is higher than anywhere else in the world where censuses have been taken, except in Switzerland and Baden. If we count lunatics and idiots, the proportion afflicted in this way added to those suffering under the other calamities just mentioned, is *one* in 370 against one in 533 in the United States. The causes of this phenomenon have not yet been discovered. The ratio of females to males in the two provinces is 88 to one hundred. The number of paupers in Canada East was, in 1831, *one* in 399; in 1844, one in 151—a strange and alarming increase. In Canada West there is only *one* pauper to every 1,469 inhabitants, against *one* to 318 in New-York in 1835. The number of colored persons settled in the province of Canada East up to 1845, only reached 261, of whom 140 were males and 120 females. Since that time, especially within the last two or three years, there has been a considerable augmentation of this class from the United States.

Agriculture.—In 1845, the amount of soil occupied in Canada was 7,540,450 acres; of which 3,083,949 were under cultivation. The amount of land surveyed in the eastern province up to 1845, was 17,685,942 acres, of which 3,928,100 were unappropriated; in the western, up to 1848, the amount surveyed was 15,902,006 acres, of which 1,597,123 were unappropriated. Vast quantities in both provinces are yet unsurveyed. The average price of this public domain was, in 1840, 11s. 2d. per acre for crown lands; 12s. 8d. for clergy reserves; and 12s. 6d. for school lands. The cultivated land is for the most part divided into small farms, which, where the feudal tenure does not operate, are almost always owned by those who reside on them; by whom, assisted sometimes by hired laborers, they are tilled. The condition, therefore, of the mass of the people is one of happiness and contentment. If great wealth is rarely concentrated upon a single individual, poverty, on the other hand, is but little known. The agriculturists are becoming every year more prosperous; and though they may not accumulate rapidly, they do it surely.

The amount of agricultural and other kinds of property assessed in Canada West in 1825, was £2,256,874; in the year 1848 it had reached £8,567,001. During the same time, the number of acres under cultivation had increased from 535,212 to 2,673,820; of houses, from 8,876 to 42,957; and of horses, oxen, milch cows, and young cattle together, from 121,206 to 481,417. Thus, we perceive, Canada West, seventy years after its settlement, had 3¾ acres of ground under cultivation for every unit of its population; whereas New-York, it would seem, had, in 1835, two hundred and twenty-one years after its settlement, only 4½ acres to every unit of its population. The number of neat cattle and horses, possessed in 1848, was equal to one head for every one and three quarters of the population; or if we take another estimate of their number, which puts them down as 717,234 instead of 481,417, the ratio is very nearly as one to one; while New-York, in the same particular only possesses one head to every unit of her population. The estimate made of the crop of Canada West for 1847, was, of *wheat*, 7,558,773 bushels; *barley*, 515,727; *oats*, 7,055,730; *rye*, 446,293; *maize*, 1,137,555; *buckwheat*, 432,573; *peas*, 1,753,846; *potatoes*, 4,751,331; the value of the whole of which was supposed to be about £2,676,285 currency. Taking the per centage, the quantity of each of these articles per inhabitant was, of *wheat*, 10·45 bushels; *barley*, 0·71; *oats*, 9·75; *rye*, 0·62; *buckwheat*, 0·60; *maize*, 1·57; *potatoes*, 6·57; *peas*, 2·52. To oppose to this, we have in the United States for the same year, the following per centage: *wheat*, 5·50; *barley*, 0·28; *oats*, 8·09; *rye*, 1·42; *buckwheat*, 0·56; *maize*, 26·01; *potatoes*, 4·86. This estimate shows that Canada West raised in 1847 as much again of *wheat* as we did, in the ratio of population. She even outstripped our best wheat-producing states; for, in the same year, New-York raised only *five* bushels to each person: Virginia *ten;* Pennsylvania *seven;* Indiana *eight;* Ohio *ten;* while Canada West raised *ten and a half.* During the year 1848, there were produced in the province 2,339,756 lbs. of *wool*, an increase within six years of more than 50 per cent.; of *tobacco*, 1,865 lbs.; *flax*, 41,599; *beef and pork*, 99,251 barrels.

The statistics of Canada East are not so full nor so reliable as those of its sister province. In 1844, its whole produce in bushels amounted to 21,325,596, which is equal to 30 bushels for each unit of the population, a ratio about one-fourth less than that of Canada West for 1842. Taking into account the fact that the most of those who engage in the lumber trade are found in the lower province, and the additional fact that it contains the two largest cities in Canada, the disproportion between its agricultural products and those of the upper province is not so great as might have been expected. In 1831, there were raised here 3,404,756 bushels of wheat; in 1844, only 942,835, owing to the devastations of the wheat-fly which occurred at this period. Since that time, partly owing to the introduction of new seed-wheat, and partly from other causes, the crop has very materially increased. The produce of 1843 was, *wheat*, 914,909 bushels; *barley*, 1,221,710; *rye*, 310,458; *oats*, 6,668,933; *peas*, 1,428,303; *maize*, 143,947; *buckwheat*, 375,744; *potatoes*, 9,914,639; *total*, 21,365,913 bushels.

Manufactures and Shipping.—The statistics of manufactures in Canada are very imperfect, and are worthy of little reliance. There were in the country in 1848, 661 fulling and carding mills; 130 breweries; 174 distilleries; 389 tanneries; 1,740 asheries; 10 paper mills; 19 trip hammers; 14 oil mills; 9 nail factories; besides other less important factories and mills. There were produced in the same year, by factories in Canada West alone, 624,971 yards of fulled cloth; 71,715 of linen; and 1,295,172 of flannel. In 1846, the value of the various kinds of factories situated within the Home District and city of Toronto, in Canada West, was estimated at $1,613,875.

In shipping also, Canada is advancing. The lower province had in 1844 a tonnage of 55,448; of which 45,351 belonged to Quebec, and 10,097 to Montreal. The number of vessels employed was 569, worked by 3,146 men. The upper province had in 1838, 4,505 tons; in 1840, 8,630 tons. The shipping owned on Lake Ontario, and employed on the inland waters of Canada in 1845, was valued at $3,090,000. Steamers now go from Chicago, down the St. Lawrence to the ocean, without breaking bulk.

Exports and Imports.—The prosperity of Canada is shown by the constant increase of its trade. In 1840, the exports amounted to $1,475,000; in 1850, $13,290,000. In 1838, the exports were valued at £2,612,851 currency, (four dollars to the pound,) of which £772,432 came to the United States; the imports for the same year by sea alone, at £2,107,264. In 1850, the exports were valued at £2,990,428, of which £1,237,789 were for the United States. Classified, the articles exported were: *produce of the mines*, £9,145; *fisheries*, £36,512; *lumber*, £1,360,734; *vegetable food*, £1,046,034; *other agricultural produce*, £13,439; *manufactures*, £6,676; *shipping*, sold abroad, £320,430. The imports during the same year amounted to £4,245,517; the duties paid on which were £615,645.*

The trade between the United States and Canada is becoming increasingly important. In 1840, our exports from that province were estimated at $162,741; our imports thither at $398,356. In 1850, the exports reached $5,813,000; the imports, $7,404,000. Of this excess of imports over exports the greater part consists of "foreign merchandise," goods intended for foreign markets which pass through the canals of the United States in preference to passing out by the river St. Lawrence. In 1840, the value of imports of lumber, animal and vegetable food, was $28,507; in 1849, $2,561,416; an increase in ten years of $2,532,907. In 1840, the value of our exports of the same articles was $204, 683; in 1849, $445,344; an increase of $320,661. From this it will be seen, that while both imports and exports have increased, our exports from Canada, in 1840, were nearly eight times greater than our imports thence; but that ten years later, in spite of our higher duties, our imports were nearly six times greater than our exports. In 1847, there were imported into Canada 27,137,234 lbs. of sugar and molasses, about 18¼ lbs. to each person; of coffee, in 1848, there were imported 11 oz. per head; of tea, 2 lbs. 4 oz. to each inhabitant. In the United States, in 1848, coffee was imported to the amount of 6½ oz. a head; tea, 5 oz. a head. This comparison would seem to indicate that the people of Canada understand the art of living comfortably; rather too comfortably, perhaps, for in 1848 they consumed about two million gallons of wine and other spirits; the greater part of it being whiskey distilled within the province.*

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* For farther information on this, and some of the preceding heads, see an article in De Bow's Review, September, 1848, on "British America."

Internal Improvements.—The provincial government has expended liberally of its funds in effecting internal improvements. In 1841, the year of the Union, it appropriated to this object $7,718,335. Previous to this time the legislature had expended, in constructing canals and in improving navigable water courses, $5,520,550; making in all up to 1841, $13,238,885. Since that time other liberal grants have been made. The *canals* which have been dug in Canada have proved of immense advantage. The longest and most important of these is that called the *Rideau Canal*, which connects the northern end of Lake Ontario at Kingston, with the Ottawa River at Bytown, a distance of 128 miles. It was constructed in order that vessels might avoid the dangerous rocks and rapids which are found in the St. Lawrence between Lake Ontario and Montreal. The Ottawa, from Bytown to Montreal, on the other hand, is navigable and perfectly safe. This canal is 142 feet long by 33 wide, contains 47 locks, and cost about $5,000,000. Farther west and south we have the *Welland Canal*, which unites the lakes Erie and Ontario, avoiding the Falls of Niagara. Its length is 42 miles; its descent, 330 feet, accomplished by 37 locks; and its cost was nearly $5,000,000. The Canadians have, besides these, the *Chambly Canal* eleven miles long, connecting Lake Champlain with the St. Lawrence near Montreal; the *Grenville Canal*, on the Ottawa, to avoid its rapids; and several short canals on the St. Lawrence, to avoid falls in that river, which measure altogether about 90 miles. By means of these canals, direct navigation has been opened from Lake Michigan down the St. Lawrence to the sea. In 1850 there passed through the canals on the St. Lawrence, 7,166 vessels and steamers, of which 6,827 were British and 339 American, with an aggregate tonnage of 547,322 tons. Through the Welland Canal there passed, the same year, 4,671 vessels and steamers, 2,692 British and 1,799 American, with a tonnage of 587,100.

Public attention has of late been directed in Canada to the making of rail-roads, several of which are being constructed and others are projected. Two or three short roads only have as yet been completed: the Champlain and St. Lawrence, 36 miles long, connecting the St. Lawrence opposite Montreal with the Sorel River at St. John's, and therefore with Lake Champlain; the Lachine, 7 miles; the Atlantic, 12; Saunay and Industry Village, 12; in all 84 miles, in Canada East. In the other province there are two short lines above Bytown on the Ottawa; and another extending from Queenston below to Chippewa, above the Falls of Niagara, used, however, only in summer, and employing only horse-power.

Two very important rail-roads have recently been projected, and a part of each has been constructed. One is called the Atlantic and St.

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* The subject of our commercial relations with Canada is well discussed in a late number of this Review, March, 1852; and in the North American Review, for January, 1852.

Lawrence Rail-road. Leaving the south shore of the river, just below Montreal, it is to pass through a part of Canada East, the northeast corner of Vermont, New-Hampshire, north of the White Hills, and through Maine to Portland. The Montreal end is finished and in use as far as Skipton, a distance of about 80 miles; at which place it is expected it will be joined by a rail-road from Quebec. On the other end, some ninety miles are finished and in operation, from Portland to Gorham, in New-Hampshire. The other proposed road, called the Great Western, will be about 230 miles long, extending from Niagara Falls westwardly, at some point 40 or 50 miles north of Lake Erie, through some of the most fertile land in America, as far as Windsor, opposite Detroit, in Michigan; where it will connect with a line passing through Michigan to the Far West. At its eastern end it will connect with the line leading from Buffalo to the Hudson River, and thence, by separate routes, to New-York and New-England. Thus, when this road is completed, a traveler will be enabled to go by rail-road from Portland, Maine, to the Mississippi.*

Revenue and Public Debt.—The revenue of the province for 1842, the year after the Union, was £365,505; in 1847, £506,826. The customs during the first mentioned period amounted to £265,386; during the last, to £381,063. The impost of one per ct. on the circulation of notes of chartered banks rose from £10,277 in 1842, to £16,006 in 1847. The net revenue derived from the canals, in 1842, was £16,369; in 1847, it had risen to £42,557. The gross revenue from this source for the latter year, was £83,335; the unusual amount of £31,307 having been spent this year in making repairs. The gross revenue of the canals from 1842 to 1847, inclusive, was, respectively, £24,232; £34,604; £44,429; £41,039; £61,486; £83,335; an increase in six years of 240 per cent. The tolls of the State of New-York, during the six years preceding 1842, increased only 36 per cent. The interest on the whole public debt of Canada was, in 1847, £148,264; 42 per cent. of which would, it is computed, be paid by the proceeds of the public works. The expenditures of the government reach about $3,000,000 annually. The taxes for the same time amounted, a few years since, to £429,044; about 5s. 8d. per head. They are comprised in the following items: customs, excise, light-house, and tonnage duties, bank imposts, militia commissions, and various fines and forfeitures.

Banks.—There are eight banks in operation in Canada, the most important of which, that of Montreal, had a capital of £750,000 in May, 1851; the smallest, the Gore Bank, a capital of £80,000. Between these there are the Bank of British North America, £640,000; Commercial Bank, M. D., £411,300; Bank of Upper Canada, £381,192; City Bank of Montreal, £221,793; Quebec Bank, £100,000; and Banque du Peuple, £200,000. Their combined capital, in May, 1851, was £2,784,285. Their circulation at the same time was £1,623,435; coin, £413,420; deposits, £1,691,630; loans,

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* See a good article on the "Condition and Prospects of Canada," in the North American Review, for April, 1852.

£5,574,280. There was an increase within twelve months of capital, £8,405; circulation, £313,503; specie, £29,289; deposits, £167,369; loans, £1,199,382.

Education.—The future of Canada, especially of the western province, is promising with respect to education. A system of instruction for the whole people has been adopted, which gives indication of the most useful results. As yet, however, its successful working is confined to Canada West. As long ago as 40 years, the legislature of Canada West made an appropriation for common schools; and this was renewed annually till 1841. These grants, however, were expended to little advantage. In 1841, a provincial statute was enacted, granting money to each county for the support of common schools, provided that the county would raise, for the same object, an equal amount by taxation. This statute has several times since been altered and improved; and in 1850, all the provisions of former laws respecting education, which had been found to work well, and others which seemed necessary, were united into one statute by the legislature. The sum of £25,000 ($100,000) was set apart as an annual donation by that body to the school fund. This fund is apportioned annually by the chief superintendent among the townships of the province, according to the population of each. The local superintendents distribute these apportionments among the several sections of each township, according to the average attendance of scholars. Each section is obliged by law to raise a sum at least as large as that received from the treasury. Every section appoints three trustees over its public schools; and each county council appoints a local superintendent for the county, or for one or more townships, a superintendent having the charge of no more than 100 schools. These trustees and the local superintendents constitute the county board of public instruction. It is the business of this board to examine candidates for the office of teacher. The local superintendents are required to visit, at stated intervals, all the schools under their charge; and clergymen, recognized as such by law, members of the legislature, and all magistrates, are also authorized to make visits to them, and to inquire into their condition. Provision is made for libraries by the county and township councils. At the head of the whole system are placed a chief superintendent and a council of public instruction. The duties of the chief superintendent are substantially the same as with us. The council has the management of the provincial, normal, and model schools; prescribes to them rules and regulations; examines and classifies teachers; recommends text-books; and has entrusted to it the establishment and care of the school libraries. The schools are said to be managed with a view to the best interests of the state and of society, apart from all political party advantage.

The number of schools in Canada West, in 1851, was 3,059, with 151,891 pupils. Massachusetts had, in 1849, when it contained 150,000 inhabitants more than Canada West has now, 3,749 public schools, with 200,000 scholars. This comparison is very favorable to our Canadian neighbor. A normal and model school was established last year at Toronto. It is designed to accommodate 200 teachers in training in the normal, and 600 pupils in the model school. The legislature has granted £15,000 ($60,000) to carry the measure into execution. Similar liberality has been shown, we believe, by no legislature on this side of the Atlantic.

Such are the educational prospects of Canada; and such as we have previously described, are the indications of her approaching commercial, manufacturing, and agricultural prosperity. A glorious, and, what is better, a happy destiny, may yet await her in the future.

ART. II.—FREE BANKING.

PART II.

LET no one imagine that the specie-convertibility of paper money is a subject which needs no discussion. The crudest notions still prevail on this topic, and ideas are now boldly announced, which we have heretofore considered obsolete and absurd. With all the admonitions of the past, we soon forget its lessons.

The specie payment of paper money has been placed by us at the very head of the requisites for sound banking. And yet we constantly hear of projects of new systems dispensing with this, and making other tests of security for paper money. Perhaps an inconvertible paper might be sustained without any great public detriment, if ours were a nation without any foreign commerce. Then such notes would act as mere signs of value. But such a currency could have no existence beyond our own limits.

Its effect would be to degrade the precious metals to such an extent, that they would seek other and more profitable fields of employment. Our commerce would then, instead of being borne along in the plain old roads it had formerly frequented, be suspended aloft, in the language of Adam Smith, by the "Dædalian wings of a paper currency."

The circulating medium of a commercial community must be one which will also circulate in other communities, or can be converted into such medium without material loss. The difference of currencies should not be represented by much more than the expense and risk of transporting the specie itself. Every item beyond that, is a needless tax on the labor and capital of the community, and is stealthily but surely draining away the productive power of the nation. The circulating medium must not merely pass in the receipts and payments of the individuals of the same society and state; it must be something which has a value abroad, as well as at home, which will satisfy both foreign and domestic debts.

Gold and silver alone fulfil this duty. They alone are, therefore, money, and whatever else purports to represent them must be convertible into them at will. So long as bank paper retains this quality, it is a substitute for money; strip it of this attribute, and nothing can restore its character. No sufficiency of assets—no unbounded fields of land—no solidity of stocks—no confidence in ultimate solvency, has ever enabled banks to keep their paper, equal to gold and silver, any longer than they paid their notes in specie on demand.

We are strangely unmindful of the past, when we conceive of any thing but a convertible paper as sufficient for the circulating medium of the community. Not even the Bank of England, with all her wealth, was enabled to maintain her notes at par, when the suspension of 1797 took place. Notwithstanding that that institution enjoyed the entire confidence of the community, that it was rich and powerful, and was the great government agent in the collection and distribution of its immense revenues; yet, in 1801, her bills were at a discount of seven per cent. And, although a resolution was passed by the House of Commons in 1811, declaring that "The promissory notes of the Bank of England had hitherto been, and were then held to be, in public estimation, equal to the legal coin of the realm," still, in spite of all this, those notes depreciated ten, then twenty, and finally twenty-five per cent.

How any one can, in the face of such facts, advocate a system having any other basis of circulation than gold and silver, seems almost incredible. And yet, at this very moment, one of our ablest journals is filled with essays favoring real estate banks, and deriding the specie-paying currency as unworthy the progressive spirit of the age.* The spirit of John Law appears to be revisiting us. To him belongs the credit of the conception of making the property and real estate of the nation the basis of paper money and the measure of its issue. With what effect, history can best answer.

"Banks," said Mr. Webster, "are the props of national wealth and industry, not the foundations of them. They are useful to the state in their proper place and sphere, but they are not sources of national income. The fountains of revenue must be sunk deeper. The credit and circulation of bank paper are the effects rather than th causes of a profitable commerce, and a well-ordered system of finance. Whoever shall attempt to restore the fallen credit of this country by the creation of new banks, merely that they may create new paper, and that government may have a chance of borrowing where it has not borrowed before, will find himself miserably deceived."

Would that every delegate to the Constitutional Convention of Louisiana might weigh well these words of wisdom!

But, paper money is not merely to be restricted, by being convertible to gold and silver.

It is not enough to secure your circulation, but you must confine its issue by some known and steady standard. It is plain that the money value of commodities will be materially affected, if the currency were suddenly expanded one-third or one-fourth more than its former amount. A derangement of relative prices will at once occur; goods already imported will become dear, and high prices as speedily check exports and encourage imports. It is true, that the regular and unerring laws of nature—which, after all, overrule all the minor machinery of the world of commerce—would, in time, check this sudden inflation of prices; but the mischief will have then been committed, and escape will be impossible. Prosperity in its full tide always carries us beyond the point of reason and discretion. It is only when the ebbing wave forewarns us, that we are convinced of the futility of our plans, and with equal heedlessness we are wont to fly from the impending calamity.

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* Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.

It is not enough, then, to make paper money convertible into specie. But the whole currency must vary in amount and value, exactly as a metallic currency would, were the paper withdrawn, and coins substituted in its stead.

In the very year just past, we witnessed the evil of such expansion. An inflated circulation prevailed in all the northern and western banks; under its exhilarating influence speculation ran rife, and prices advanced. Suddenly the reaction took place, prices tottered, and the panic-stricken banks commenced curtailing their discounts and contracting their issues—thus defeating one of the great purposes of their creation, viz: the assistance of individual enterprise and labor, when distrust and suspicion diverted from them the floating capital of the country. That such a system has in it inherent evil, we believe no one can deny. Such an alternation of expansion, during times of prosperity, and contraction during the consequent period of depression and recoil, has been well likened in its effect to an intermittent fever. The patient public now suffering from a hot and anon from a cold fit, realizes, though faintly, the punishment allotted to the damned by the poet,—

> "And feel by turns the bitter change
> Of fierce extremes—extremes by *change* more fierce,
> From beds of raging fire, to starve in ice
> Their soft ethereal warmth."

To guard against such extremes in the circulation of the Bank of England, Sir Robert Peel proposed, and carried through the act of 1844, which regulates the issues of that institution by the influx and outflow of bullion.

It has frequently been urged, that an increase of currency has a quickening influence on the industry of a country.

This doctrine, first enunciated by Mr. Hume, has received such complete refutation at the hands of Adam Smith and Mills, as to render superfluous any remarks on it here. We only mention it, that those who now lean towards it, may know that it is an exploded opinion, falsified by the history of every paper money mania which has ever existed.

The next requisite of sound banking is the limitation of its issues to sums not under five or ten dollars. The general wisdom of this provision is commonly acknowledged, although practised in but few states. In the ordinary working of the banking system, few provisions are more important. Without it, the country will be inevitably deluged with that species of notes, opprobriously termed "Shinplasters." Every item of change will be banished from the minor channels of trade; and in case of suspensions and failures, which, in spite of all precautions, will often occur, the loss will fall most grievously on that class least able to bear it. Let any one travel in the western or northern states, and our remarks will be strongly confirmed by his experience of the every-day currency which meets him at the hotel, the steamboat, the railway, and the retail shops. Notes of ten dollars are scarcely used in circulation. Specie of every kind is nearly expelled from use. The little which circulates is of a smooth and clipped coin, with three or four per cent. less than it passes for. This species of paper circulation is highly profitable, and all banks endeavor to retain it. Some idea of the profits, made on various denominations of notes, may be formed by the following figures, showing the time and amount of circulation of notes of the Bank of England in the October quarter of 1847.

	Amount.	Average days in circulation.
£ 5	£5,816,000	74·0
10	3,759,000	73·6
20	1,398,000	54·3
100	2,294,000	26·2
1000	2,921,000	7·3

We here see, that at but three per cent. interest, a profit of near £40,000 is made on the £5 notes, whilst on the £20 notes the profit is but £6,000, and on the £1,000 notes but £1,500. And if such is the disparity in profits of her circulation, how immense must it be in the United States, where the use of bills under five dollars almost supersedes the use of specie from what we have called the minor channels of trade. As a general rule, we may look for the prevalence of this circulation, where specie is scarce, and for an abundance of coin, where the issues are not for small amounts.*

Nor is it sufficient to have such small note circulation "specie-paying." It being the cheapest currency will at once throw it in the market, to the prejudice of the gold and silver change.

An incidental evil which attends a small note currency, is its great liability to being counterfeited and mutilated. Forgery may, without stretch of language, be said to revel in such small and contracted issues. Their circulation being chiefly amongst the innocent and ignorant laborers and trades-people, counterfeits are not easily detected by them. And in this wise, the greatest nuisance of a paper currency is inflicted, on those who are least able to bear it. A prohibition of the issue of small notes by banks, we believe to be more highly conservative in its effect than all the boards of currency, bank commissioners, and legislative committees of inquiry ever convened.

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* The banks of Louisiana are cases in point. Having no small notes, their circulation is but $4,000,000; whilst their coin is $7,000,000.

The last requisite we shall enumerate, as needful to sound banking, is the personal responsibility of the directors or stockholders of such institutions for any loss that may occur.

We know there are many minor plans of checking abuses in banks. Boards of currency, supervisory committees, limitations of issue by an arbitrary standard of one dollar in specie for three dollars in paper; these and a host of other stays, checks, curbs and guards of very respectable character and much pretension, we pass over entirely. They are quite good in their place, but never yet could they protect the public from most disastrous imposition. They are continually evaded, and the public is never made conscious of their worthlessness until the bubble has burst, the failure has occurred, and the paper wealth is scattered to the winds. The idea of making stockholders, or directors, pecuniarily responsible for the shortcomings of their banks, will sound very radical to many. It will be conceived as utterly subversive of all joint-stock banks, and will be declared utterly impracticable. But let us pause, and inquire what is demanded of the stockholders, and what is given in return. A, B, C and D are partners in business, under the style of the Bank of E. They have mutually participated in the transactions of this bank; they have, perhaps, aided in directing its affairs, and reaped all the benefits derived from being employed in its management. These partners have, from time to time, been called on to examine the affairs of their joint firm, or bank; they have elected their officers; they have declared publicly the amount of their profits, and they have pocketed those profits. Such are their relations to the joint concern, or bank. Now, what has the public done for them? It has allowed them to exercise that almost regal privilege of making their promissory notes the money of the land. Their bills have been circulated in the exchange of products, and have been invested by the community with all the attributes of real and tangible value. Could a more magnificent boon be given to any set of men? With it they have the purse of Fortunatus almost made real, for their coffers are never exhausted by the outpouring of their real possessions.

Is it, then, asking too much of these partners, in return for such munificent endowments, that they shall make good any losses to which their joint firm may subject the community? Theirs have been the profits and patronage. Theirs was the privilege and duty of seeing that the bank was pursuing a safe and discreet line of policy. In other occupations, partners are subjected to losses by such errors as they make in the management of their affairs. They are compelled too, to make good, losses incurred through the malpractices of their associates and agents. Why, then, make the distinction in the pursuit of banking?

The principle has been practised on in Scotland for nearly thirty years, and has, as much as anything else, tended to impart that efficiency and prudence which have eminently distinguished the Scotch banks.

Since 1826, there have been nearly 50 banks established in that kingdom, each having numerous branches. In 1848 there were, of these 50 banks, eighteen banks of issue in full operation, having in the aggregate 14,235 partners or shareholders, 400 branches, and employing a paid-up capital of over $50,000,000.* With a few exceptions, these banks were conducted on the principle of personal responsibility of the stockholders for all obligations made. They have declared an annual average dividend of nearly 7 per cent., and their stock is generally at a premium of nearly 40 per cent. In one instance, the enhancement of stock is so enormous, as to be worthy of notice. An original share of £150 of the Aberdeen Banking Co., established in 1767, is now (1848) worth no less than £2,500.

Such figures are the best arguments we can adduce, in favor of the personal liability of stockholders. If Scotch banking, with this principle engrafted on it, proved so profitable as to raise its stock immensely above its par value, can we doubt its efficacy as applied to the still more profitable banking prevalent in this country? But the history of these banks furnishes a still stronger argument in their favor. From 1826 to 1848, a period involving the greatest commercial crises and pecuniary embarrassments, there were only six failures amongst the banks of Scotland, and three of these afterwards paid up in full. We challenge any other banking system to produce similar results.

Having now stated some general rules to guide us in our inquiry into the subject of banking, let us proceed at once to examine the free-banking system itself.

The New-York law presents us with the experiment in its best perfected and most approved form, and we will give but a passing notice to the schemes which obtain in other states. The constitution of New-York wisely leaves the details of the banking system to the legislature, and only confines its action by general clauses, to most of which we see no reasonable ground of objection. For, our opposition is not to banks in general, or to free-banking (using the words in no technical sense) in particular. We do not hesitate to say, that the present condition of banking in Louisiana is faulty, and should be changed, and that speedily. After giving all due security against the evils we have referred to, we think the system should be left open to all who are willing to embark their capital in it. But it is, as a friend of the proposed reform, sincerely wishing it God-speed, that we deprecate the evils we believe to be inherent in the New-York system.

It is not necessary to give the details of that plan. The banking laws of New-York, in some shape, are accessible to every one.

Our first remark is, that a power almost despotic is given to the superintendent of the banking department. This important officer receives his appointment from the governor for the term of three years. He has, by law, the entire control of the seals and plates used in the engraving of bank paper. He can withhold notes if he does not deem the security deposited as sufficient, or if he considers that already accepted as an inadequate guarantee of previous circulation. He has power to tax, in such proportions "as he shall deem just and reasonable," the various banks of the country for the expense of sustaining his office. He has the power to examine the books and papers of any bank he may think unsafe, or the correctness of whose reports he may have reason to doubt. In fine, this is an officer irresponsible to the people, because appointed by the governor, who holds in his hands, not the keys of the treasury of the government, but of the currency of the land—who has power to make and unmake, to tax and coerce; to sit in inquisitorial power, and to condemn to a fate and punishment, surpassed only by the punishment of the inquisition itself, every banking institution in the state. For, great as is the power of this superintendent in making banks and issuing money, and judging security, still greater is his power to unmake these institutions. In him is vested the right to sell all the mortgages and stocks deposited by the banks. With him have the note-holders to deal to get their *pro-rata* of security, and in his integrity does the public rely for the soundness of the money they circulate. We need not describe how the law may be evaded by him, if he is so disposed, It is sufficient to know that it is human, and the temptations to violate it innumerable. Such one-man power is assuredly dangerous to the public welfare; and yet, it is but the least objection to this system. Any one familiar with banking, knowing the immense power it wields, its means of influence and corruption, will pronounce this duty as beset with imminent peril to the community. Let a feud spring up between the superintendent and some of the banks, or let high political excitement prevail, and these moneyed institutions will either become instruments of vengeance or of bribery in the hands of intriguing politicians. It is in the power of this superintendent in one month to stop scores of the banks, to plunge the community into a sea of the wildest speculation, from which it will only emerge a bankrupt and disabled wreck.

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* McCulloch on Banking.

Thus far, New-York has been fortunate in its controllers and superintendents, and no such disasters have yet occurred. Indeed, she has been still more fortunate, in having a period of unexampled prosperity, in which to try the scheme of free banking. There has been no dreadful crisis to test the temper and strength of these institutions. But will she be always as fortunate? Is it wise to subject the labor and capital of the state to such dangerous risks? We are not called to prepare a mere fair-weather system, but one that will stand the severest trial and out-ride the most fearful storm. It is in the hour of danger that a sound bank is valuable. In prosperity all are good enough, and as with individuals so with them, credit gets cheap and money goes begging. But when the cloud gathers up, the prudent and frugal, the laborer and artisan, the widow and orphan, seek shelter in the staunchest institution they can find.

But the power of the controller or superintendent may be exercised in a still more prejudicial manner; not indeed by befriending the banks, but by attempting to crush a part of them—by arraying against a particular class, the prejudices and hostility of party. The bare mention of the danger recalls to mind the disgraceful scenes enacted in many of the states in 1838 and 1839. The dominant party, indulging bitter enmity against the management of some particular banks, would set to work to break them down. The banks in turn endeavoring to counteract such attempts, would set to work to break down the party. And thus a struggle commenced, which must end in the ruin of credit and commerce.

The memory of every one will supply the details of such a contest. How prostrate and desolate such struggles leave the monetary world, let the history of 1837 to 1840 tell!

Will Louisiana, then, entrust such despotic power over her commerce and prosperity to any one? It is utterly at war with all our sentiments and instincts, and can hardly find a foot-hold in our state.

The next objection to the New-York system is found in the nature of the security given. The propriety of making the state or national debt the basis of currency, involves the vastest considerations, and will be reserved for our next article.

ART. III.—MODERN GREECE.

[WE have before stated our intention to furnish a series of historical, descriptive, and statistical papers upon the various European powers; and, sometime ago, began the series with Turkey. The present sketch is from the able pen of Professor Koeppen, who was for many years a resident of Greece, and who is a man of great learning and historical discrimination. He will conclude the subject in our next, bringing it down to the present moment, and contribute hereafter other papers of a less elaborate character to our pages.

Greece, which was the marvel of the ancient world in all that was truly glorious and great, was annexed to the car of Roman conquest in the year 146 B. C., and after 395 A. D., formed a part of the Eastern Empire. With the fall of that empire in 1458, the Turkish yoke succeeded to the Roman, but in 1821 the Greeks began to assert their independence, which, however, they never could have regained but for the intervention of other powers. A combined English, French, and Russian fleet destroyed the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Navarino, in 1827; whilst the French landing in Greece forced the Turks at the same time to retire. At this point Mr. Koeppen opens, and we shall only add a few statistical notes. The government is a constitutional monarchy. Revenues in 1846, $2,414,365; expenditures, $2,464,405. Public debt, $16,000,000. Army, 4,006 men; navy, 33 vessels. The commerce of Greece is about $13,000,000 exports, and the same of imports. The exports are currants, olive oil, wines, figs, almonds, gall, honey, raw silk, &c. There are 3,314 vessels. The Greeks are the best sailors on the Mediterranean, and unrivaled ship-builders.]—ED.

THE rising of the humbled and oppressed Hellenic nation against their Othoman tyrants, and the heroic fortitude with which they, single-handed, for eight years repelled their overwhelming forces, forms one of the most interesting pages in the history of our century, and excites the more our admiration and sympathy, when we consider the weak and defenceless state of Greece in 1821, the heterogeneous admixture of her Romaic, Albanian, and Valachian population, and the political jealousy with which the great European powers, Russia, Austria, France, England, and Prussia, regarded every change in the relations of the Levant. Yet the valor, constancy, and disasters of the Greeks, roused the deepest feeling of compassion among their Western Christian brethren; the governments followed the general impulse, and the cannonade of Navarino, (20th October, 1827,) at last proclaimed an intercession in their favor.

Sultan Mahmoud II. had hitherto refused every mediation, but the occupation of the Peloponnesus by a French army in 1828, and the defeat of the Turks in the Balcan against the Russians, together with the treaty of Adrianople in 1829, secured *de facto* the entire independence of a suffering and decimated nation.

Count Capo d'Istrias had already arrived in Greece, and begun the internal organization of the young state; and though with inadequate means, this practical and intelligent statesman immediately laid the foundation for future development. But unhappily he found so unruly and quarrelsome a spirit among the Greeks, and so passionate and selfish an opposition among their leaders, that the coercive measures which he was obliged to adopt, in order to restore unity in the administration, soon brought on the most virulent opposition and open rebellion, to which he fell a victim.

It has often been said that he was a Russian at heart, and an enemy to the liberty of Greece. Yet great injustice has been done to Capo d'Istrias; some of his measures may have been too violent; but he has proved himself a man of extraordinary talents and ability. The monuments of his wisdom still speak loudly in his favor; reduced to his own scanty resources, he has done more for Greece comparatively, than later the Bavarian regency, with its loan of sixty millions of francs.

The president was assassinated by Georgias and Constantinos Mauro Michalis, in Nauplion, on the 9th of October, 1831. A civil war, more destructive and demoralizing than the long contest against the Othomans, now broke out among the political parties; and the feuds between Rumeliotes and Moreotes had risen to such a height that they threatened the final destruction of the distracted people,—when a Bavarian regency, with 4,000 troops, and shortly afterwards young King Otho himself, arrived at Nauplion in February, 1833.

In the midst of the civil dissensions, the shadow of a national assembly had met at Pronia, the suburb of Nauplion, in July, 1832, in order to re-establish the constitution of Troezen, which had been set aside by Count Capo d'Istrias. The minds of men were exceedingly irritated at that time, and violent discussions arose; but the diplomatic residents of the three powers at Nauplion interposed, and demanded that the assembly would not, by precipitate measures, increase the existing anarchy, but quietly await the arrival of the new king, in common with whose government the final constitution of the kingdom would be determined upon. This promise was not fulfilled; and it has often been repeated in aftertimes, that King Otho ought instantly, on his landing in Greece, to have called together a national assembly, granted a liberal constitution to the Greeks, and placed some of their distinguished men at the head of his government. But such a system at that time would certainly have become impracticable, and instead of pacifying the parties, would only have contributed to prolong the anarchical state of that unhappy country. Whoever has lived in Greece during that distressful period, from 1832 to 1835, will fully understand the impossibility of uniting in one government, minds like those of Mavrokordatos, Kolettis, Metaxas, Kolokotronis, Konduriotis, and others, whose violent ambition and inveterate jealousies have, after the tranquillity of ten years, with the new constitution in 1843, revived the old dissensions and bloody feuds which, even at the present moment, are weakening and distracting the constitutional government of Greece. Now, in 1833, a regency, composed of *foreign* statesmen, who themselves were legislators and organizers, supported by a strong body of foreign troops, were of the highest necessity, without whom there would have been no end of the chaos. The Greeks themselves were of that opinion—they wanted bread, and a strong hand to crush the hydra of dissension.

The hopes of Greece were, therefore, raised to the highest pitch; and, indeed, the energetic measures of the regency, backed by the regular army, and a loan of sixty millions of francs, or twelve millions of dollars, soon effected the pacification of the country; all the fortresses and mountain-strongholds were opened without resistance to the Bavarian troops; the *pallikars*, or irregular Greek warriors, were marched off to their separate camps, where they were drilled and equipped to serve as regulars, and thus tranquillity was soon restored, even in the mountains.

The Turks, who still were in possession of Attica and the Island of Eubœa, sold their estates, and retired to Thessaly. A frontier line, extending along the mountain-ridge of Othrys, from the Gulf of Volo to that of Ambrakia, or the Ionian Sea, was laid down by commissioners, appointed by the three protecting powers and the Porte, and very soon a perceptible amelioration took place throughout the kingdom. A regular government was established; general governors were appointed for the Peloponnesus, the mainland of northern Greece, and the islands of the Ægean. Three central tribunals were erected, and Greece organized on the style of a European kingdom. But here unhappily lay the great difficulty; because this too close imitation of a small German court, with a host of military and civil officials strutting about in rich uniforms, was ill chosen for poor, emaciated Greece. Among all the Bavarian counselors who were sent from Munich to organize and civilize Greece, there happened to be not one man of genius or profound learning, joining a true and deeply-felt admiration for ancient Hellas to the necessary familiarity with the history and language of the modern Greeks. Hofrath Thiersch, the professor of the University of Munich, and author of an able work on Greece,* would, perhaps, have been the man. He possessed an immense popularity in Greece; he spoke the language, knew personally all the leaders and their partisans, and had once put himself with Kolettis at the head of the Rumeliotes against the Capo d'Istrian party in Nauplion. He was with anxiety expected in Greece; but the suspicious politics of King Lewis chained him down to his chair at the University. All the counselors and other officials sent to Greece, with the only exception of the Chevalier de Maurer, were home-bred Bavarians, who, with the best possible will and intention to do everything right, did many things wrong, because they were ignorant of the language, the religious prejudices, customs and habits of that lively, cunning people, who, having suffered all the demoralizing effects of a desperate war, could only be brought back to labor and order by an austere and active government, employing the ablest Greeks themselves as its instruments to give a national organization to their country. This, most unhappily, the regency did not; they had no confidence in the Greeks, and took the whole government into their own hands. Numerous laws, decrees, ordinances, written in the diffuse, unintelligible Bavarian dialect, translated into a bad French, and then into a worse Greek, were promulgated, but hardly understood, and never executed. Count Armansperg directed the finances and the diplomatic relations with the powers. Chevalier de Maurer, an active and able jurist, introduced an excellent criminal, civil and commercial code, which contains trial by jury, and may be considered a *permanent benefit* to the Greek nation. On the other hand, did his suppression of the convents on the mainland of Greece, (with the exception of Megaspilœon and a few others,) prove to be a rash and inconsiderate measure, because the *Kalogeri*, or Greek monks, are farmers, who pay their tithe and rent; and by depriving them of their estates, the lands remained waste, and government lost the annual revenue. King Otho has, therefore, a few years ago, been obliged to give the monasteries back to the fugitive Kalogeri, in order that their fields might be cultivated, and the taxes paid. The formation of a Greek synod at the head of the oriental Greek church, independent of the Patriarch, was highly beneficial, and cut off all the intrigues and ecclesiastical communications with Constantinople.

The *Klephties*, or robbers, who had infested every part of Greece, were destroyed during the two first years of King Otho's government. They had formed some strong and dangerous bands on the Thessalian frontier; but during summer, in 1834, they were surrounded, and after a most desperate combat, cut to pieces by the brave Philhellene, Colonel Christoph Fabricius. A few gangs still infested the Arcadian mountain passes, but soon dispersed, and Greece enjoyed the benefit of nearly perfect tranquillity and security from the robbers until the general demoralization which followed the September revolution of 1843. One of the best organizations of the Bavarians was that of the gendarmerie, or Χοροφυλακή, an armed police-corps of twelve hundred men, horse and foot, commanded by the vigilant Colonel de Rosner, a Bavarian officer, who was highly esteemed by the Greeks, and knew how to inspire them with feelings of honor and fidelity. The wild Maniatæ, or Mainotts, living on the barren and rocky coast of Laconia, were pacified by another worthy Bavarian officer, Colonel Feder. They broke their castles, submitted quietly to their liege lord, and entered his army. Thus the general tranquillity on sea and land soon permitted the Greeks to return to their wonted occupations, agriculture and commerce.

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* De l'etat actuel de la Greece, et des moyens d'arriver à sa restauration. Leipzig, 1834. 2 vols. 8vo.

Yet, how much soever the regency exerted itself by beneficent measures and German institutions to improve the condition of the country, they, nevertheless, found a continual and secret opposition in the Capo d'Istrian party, at the head of which were several of those chieftains, who, nine years later—in 1843—succeeded in overthrowing the Bavarian system of government, and introducing a national constitution. The warriors who planned the *first* conspiracy against King Otho were the old Theodoros Kolokotronis, of Karitena in Morea; Makry-Yannis, of Athens; Rhigas-Palamides, of Kalabrita in Morea; Spiridon-Milios, a brave captain of Epirus; Londas, Kolliopulos, and many others. Their plan was to seize the young king; to arrest the regency and to send them home; then to take the government into their own hands, and to proclaim a constitution in accordance with their own interests and those of their armed followers. But such a plot could not succeed in 1834, because the tormented nation was now for the first time, after so many misfortunes, enjoying the fruits of reviving industry and commerce. The regency had money, troops, and a body of well-paid Greek *employées*, who were ready to obey the slightest intimation of the will of Count Armansperg. The plot was betrayed to an intelligent German secretary, Dr. Trank, who instantly gave notice of it to the Count. The conspirators were seized, and after a curious sham trial, the old hero, Kolokotronis, and Kolliopulos, were condemned to death as traitors to King Otho. This ridiculous sentence was, of course, commuted to another of a temporary imprisonment; yet the armed retainers of the leaders flew to arms, and an insurrection broke out in the Morea. The Bavarian troops, who had never served in the mountains, were now most imprudently sent against the active and insidious Mainotts who awaited them among their inaccessible precipices. The Germans, full of ardor, advanced into the centre of the Maina, where they soon found themselves surrounded by numerous bodies of daring mountaineers, who, cutting them off from the sea, and keeping them blockaded on the barren crags of Zimova, forced several detachments to surrender their arms, and obliged at last the disgraced government in Nauplion, with thousands of dollars, to release the rest.

The position of the regency now became awkward and dangerous. To quell the rebellion in the peninsula, Kolettis was called in to support the government with his warlike and faithful Rumeliotes. More by his simple appearance than by his sword, Kolettis restored tranquillity to the Morea. Kolokotronis now received his full pardon, and was drawn to the court, and Kolettis was nominated minister of the interior and president of the council.

But this victory did not strengthen the Bavarian rule; on the contrary, it served only still more to weaken it. A most unhappy contest rose between the members of the regency themselves; each faction sought every possible means to fortify itself by forming a party among the Greeks, who, of course, wished for nothing more than intrigue and cabal. Count Armansperg was supported by the Prince Alexander Mavrokordatos and that host of Phanariotes from Constantinople, who, having lost their lucrative offices in the Turkish service by the revolution of 1821, had now come down to Hellas, where, well instructed in European languages and manners, they soon formed the *elite*—not of the Romaic nation, by whom they were envied and detested, but of the gay gentlemen of the drawing-room, of the household officers and boastful councilors of Count Armansperg. Nay, the count even went so far as to give his two charming daughters in marriage to the two brothers, the princes Kantakouzenoi, quite contrary to the doctrines of the oriental church, which prohibits a marriage of so near relations. On the other part, was Chevalier de Maurer, supported by Mr. Abell, General Heydeck, and Kolettis, with his Rumeliote captains. But great as was the outcry, Count Armansperg succeeded at the time; he bore down his opponents. Chevalier de Maurer and Mr. Abell, the most intelligent members of the Regency, were suddenly recalled to Bavaria, and their places supplied by the councilors de Kobell and de Greiner, who were altogether unfit for the high station entrusted to their care. The count, at the head of his brilliant Phanariotes, and vigorously supported by Mr. Dawkins, the British embassador, went on in great style. Athens was declared the capital of the kingdom, and large sums were spent in rebuilding that inland city, where government was obliged to buy every span of ground to erect the necessary buildings for the public service. The foreign embassadors vied with one another in giving routs, masquerades, and theatrical representations. All the hotels and coffee-houses were crowded with Greek and German officers. Lancers, grenadiers, and chasseurs were parading and mustering, as if the Seraskier, with his Turkish spahis, was at the gates of the city! The activity of the secretaries, clerks, and translators, was very great; yet, among the many decrees promulgated, few were of any real importance to the improvement of the country. German architects, engineers, geometers, foresters, were galloping off in all directions; but unhappily the cities were rebuilt but in part; the fields, though measured, were not sold or cultivated; the harbors not repaired; the roads not opened, and the forests not protected! Blunders and mistakes were continually made, which, forming the topic of the day, made the people at Athens laugh heartily at the want of tact which the Bavarians showed in nearly every branch of the administration. One or two will illustrate this. General Schmalz, formerly a colonel of dragoons in Bavaria, was now minister of the war and navy department in Greece. Supposing that light dragoons were the proper persons to civilize Greece, some troops of these expensive horsemen were sent to Athens, where the minister soon discovered their total uselessness in so mountainous a country, and therefore resolved to send them back, and instead of them to order miners, sappers, and military workmen. Several of these mechanics had just landed at the Piræus after a long voyage from Trieste, when they immediately received the order to re-embark and to return to Germany. The Bavarian officers were already obeying the order, when General Heydeck, one of the regents of the kingdom, by chance taking a ride to the Piræus, learned this singular occurrence. He therefore instantly, on his return to Athens, called on the minister, and inquired why he sent those useful troops back to Munich? M. Schmalz stared at him and exclaimed, in his coarse Bavarian dialect —"*Ei was, di' Leit' seind ha'lt nit g'sheit!*"—the people are crazy. The order was now produced, and it appeared that the general had written *ouvriers*, or workmen, instead of "*chevaux legers*," or light dragoons! These latter were accordingly sent back to Germany, and an attempt afterwards made to colonize the Bavarian workmen in Greece, which did not succeed. Another still more ridiculous accident happened in 1834, while government was residing in Nauplion. Some disorders having taken place at Syra, between the German military and the citizens, a combined court-martial of military officers and civilians of high standing had been sent off to that island. Sentence was passed accordingly; the proceedings were sent back to Nauplion, and the court there awaited for orders to return. But no such orders came. A week passed away—a fortnight —a month—six weeks! Every body in Nauplion wondered at the absence of so many high-paid state officers. At last, a secretary expressed his astonishment to General Schmalz, who looked foolish, and exlaimed: "Sapperment! the order lies in my great coat!" Another mistake of Count Armansperg was still more unpardonable. Among the many Bavarians who, during this period, received offices in Greece, which they considered no better than a sort of Bavarian Algiers! was a certain Baron Von Tettenbach, a particular friend and *protege* of the count. This worthy was sent as president to the court of justice, which had been organized at Tripolitza, in Arcadia. A month or two later it happened that the royal gendarmes, or *chorophylakes*, had surrounded a gang of robbers, or *klephties*, in the mountains of Divri, and after a desperate struggle, taken them prisoners. In one of their dens the gendarmes found, among other spoils, a strong iron chest filled with splendid Turkish weapons, such as pistols, daggers, yatagans, sabres, and the like, all richly ornamented with gold and silver, diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones of great value. As these Turkish trophies had been robbed from different persons, who now pretended to reclaim their property, the chest was transported to the tribunal at Tripolitza, and placed in a cabinet adjoining the court-hall. But on a night when the janitor of the tribunal had returned late at home from a party, he heard a noise in the upper story of the house as if somebody was at work with a hammer. Instantly supposing that thieves had entered the house in order to rob the precious arms, he hurried to call the neighbors to his assistance. A large number of Greeks now surrounded the court-house, while the janitor, and another troop armed to the teeth, and holding lighted torches and cocked pistols in their hands, silently stole up the stairs, and suddenly burst into the hall. But who would be able to describe their surprise, their amazement, when they found Baron Von Tettenbach, the president of the tribunal, standing with sledge-hammer and crowbar, knocking away on the iron chests of the klephties containing the Turkish arms. The Bavarian felt a little awkward, but recovering his presence of mind, he called out to the janitor that he was a blockhead, having locked the door of the hall upon him, and thus forced him to while away the dreary hours of night with knocking a little at the chest. But the Greeks were too shrewd a set of people not to hiss and hoot at the president, who was instantly arrested. This curious but scandalous affair ran like wildfire through Greece. Count Armansperg got into a fury; and a few days later, it was reported in the newspapers that Baron Von Tettenbach had passed through Patrasso on his route for Bavaria.

These, and numberless other mistakes and faulty measures, still more expensive, such as the unsuccessful military colonies established at Tyrinth and Erakli, were daily committed by the government of Count Armansperg. They exposed the Bavarian ministers to the witty sarcasms of the Greek press, and created a general dissatisfaction throughout the nation. Yet the cause of this slow progress in the different provinces of the kingdom did not altogether originate in the ignorance and blunders of the administration, but partly in the totally exhausted and depopulated state of the country, in the avarice and selfishness of the Greek governors themselves, and partly in the want of confidence, good will, and activity among the inhabitants, and their continual fear of the chieftains, by whom they so often had been robbed. Instead, therefore, of employing their means in extending their agriculture, they would conceal their money, bury it deep in the earth, and wait for the turn things would take, without cultivating more ground than that which was absolutely necessary for the scanty support of their families. During the spring of 1835, it was a general opinion at Athens, that the existing system of administration could not be continued for three months longer—and this proved true.

King Otho, having become of age, took the government in his own hands on his twentieth birthday, June 1st, 1835. The regency, on this occasion, gave another instance of their extravagance and indiscreet wastefulness of the public treasury. Though they had already expended the greatest part of the two first series of the loan, they resolved upon giving the Greeks the brilliant exhibition of a grand coronation. The silly councilors, Von Kobell and Von Greinir, had a month before sent a number of big folio volumes to Doctor Lewis Ross, the director of the excavations on the Acropolis, with the order for the learned antiquarian to *extract* all passages from the Byzantine historians of the middle ages referring to the pompous coronations and processions of the Roman emperors of Constantinople, which were to be imitated at the small court of King Otho, in the midst of the ruins and misery of modern Athens! This folly speaks volumes! But the good sense of the excellent young monarch instantly put a stop to this last infatuation of the regency. His accession to the throne was celebrated by an interesting festival in the true national style. On the plain, north of Athens, near the academy of Plato, were held the gymnastic exercises of the muscular and nimble Greeks, in the presence of the king, court, and assembled Athenians; the pallikars, gorgeously dressed, on their prancing steeds, were throwing the *jerid*, or Turkish javelin, in imitation of Eastern warfare—all combined, presented an animated and highly picturesque spectacle, on the old classical soil, suggesting so many pleasing associations, and being illuminated by so glorious a sun, that it appeared to the beholders more like a beautiful dream of fancy than the happy day of Grecian regeneration and independence *in all reality!*

The first act of the young king was the dissolution of the regency, who, with a large number of foreigners and the greater part of the Bavarian troops, were sent back to Germany. Only Count Armansperg remained as archi-kangellarias, or chief chancellor of the kingdom, and a great council of state formed, consisting of thirty-six of the most popular leaders of the nation. This institution would certainly have proved highly beneficial to the country, and have contributed quietly to prepare the foundations for a more liberal constitution, if Count Armansperg had been sincere in the choice of its members, and had granted them enlarged powers for consultation. But the chief chancellor not only selected as councilors of state those chieftains who were most dependent on government, and secured their votes by large salaries, but he ordered all the *leaders* of the different parties, the most intelligent and influential statesmen of Greece, to be sent off as embassadors to foreign courts. This was a truly diplomatic *coup d'etat!* Kolettis, the leader of the French party, went to Paris; Count Andreas Metaxás, the Napist or Russian chief, to Madrid; Prince Alexander Mavrokordatos, to Munich, and afterwards to London, where he replaced the less dangerous Spiridon Trikoupis. Strongly supported by England, Count Armansperg had now got his hands free; he maintained peace and tranquillity throughout the land, and turned his attention seriously to the social and literary improvement of Greece. *Sui cuique!* It would be unjust not to own that many excellent works were undertaken by government in this period.

A great amelioration now took place in the general aspect of that beautiful, but suffering and desolate country. If a traveler would compare the flourishing condition of Greece during the reign of King Otho, with its nearly total desolation in 1828, on the arrival of the French army, he could not but rejoice at the change. Many cities, such as Athens, Thebes, Livadia, Lamia, Corinth, Argos, Tripolis, Mistra, Calamæ, Pyrgos, and Patræ, presented, in that distressful period of war and civil discord, nothing but heaps of ruins. Churches and monasteries, towns and villages, vineyards and olive-groves, had been totally destroyed. The fortress of Nauplion, the nearly inaccessible Dimitzana, in Arcadia, Arrhachova, on Mount Parnassus, the monastery Megaspilæon, and the villages of the Maina, were the only places on the mainland of Greece which had escaped the sword of the Turk or the Arab; while the islands of Hydra, Spezzia, and Ægina, were the only safe retreats of the fugitive inhabitants.

The towns and villages were now quickly rebuilding; extensive mulberry and olive-groves began again to embellish the beautiful plains of Messina and the valley of Laconia, where a new Sparta rose on the banks of the Eurotas, at a short distance from the ruins of the old. The swamps of the Piræus, of Argos, and Pyrgos, in Elis, were drained or filled up. A Macadamized high-road was laid out between the Piræus and Athens; another was continued across Mount Cythœron to Thebes, and along the Copaic lake to Livadia and Thermopylæ; and a third one from the table lands of Arcadia to the coast of Nauplion. The plains of Bœotia, Locris, and the island of Eubœa were again cultivated, and covered with wheat, barley, and maize; the hills of Achaia and Elis with precious currant plantations. Sugar mills were established at Thermopylæ; silk spinneries at Sparta and Nisi; paper mills at Dimitzana; powder mills at Kephalari; coal mines were opened at Kumi, and copper mines explored at Karystos, in Eubœa, where it was proposed to build a new harbor. The ports of Piræus and Syra were repaired, and many useful public buildings erected. The University of Athens was founded; the *didaskaleion*, a seminary for teachers, four colleges, and a large number of preliminary and Hellenic grammar schools were opened, and soon filled with studious young men.

But all this was not enough in a country where new resources of industry and produce were to be created. The borrowed funds of the sixty millions had not been judiciously or economically administrated, according to the views of Professor Thiersch, to the direct encouragement of agriculture, to an equitable distribution of public lands, and the liberal establishment of colonies for the Greek fugitives from Chios, Ipsara, Crete, Cyprus, Thessaly, Epirus, Macedonia, Asia Minor and Constantinople, who, without support, were suffering the greatest distress in Syra and Ægina; and seeing all their hopes of a permanent settlement frustrated, were obliged to abandon Greece and return to Turkey! And yet were the intrigues and jealousies of the native Greeks themselves the principal cause of the failure of the two colonies at Eretria and Karystos, in Eubœa!

Another difficulty which the government of the chief chancellor had to overcome, was the indemnification to be granted to the Hydriote navy and the *kapitanei*, or commanders of the irregular troops during the war of independence. A large number of the former received their rank and pay as officers of the royal navy, and the latter were formed into a *phalanx* of eight hundred officers of different rank. They received a high pay, wore the splendid Albanian arms and costume, but did no service, and remained faithful to the king only as long as they received their salary. Many got assignments of lands and the means of cultivating them; but the old warriors had no taste for agriculture; they generally sold their shares to the neighboring villagers, and returned to the coffee-houses in Athens. When the treasury, in 1843, became exhausted, they were the *first* to take up arms against their sovereign, hoping, by getting the administration into their own hands, to renew their former military sway. But fortunately for Greece they did not succeed.

The defective system of administration, and the open protection given by Count Armansperg to the intriguing Phanariotes, nourished the fermentation in the mind of the people, and gave rise to an opposition of the press, which at the time was moderate, but in the course of a few years became formidable, and evidently tended to the overthrow of the existing government.

Another evil still more neutralizing the activity of the Bavarian administration, arose from the petty and despicable rivalry of the embassadors of the three protecting powers, who used every effort to keep up their predominant influence in the small infant kingdom of Hellas! This would, to the general observer, seem to be nearly incredible; but it is, nevertheless, a most remarkable historical fact. Great Britain evidently disliked the commercial and political development of Greece, and dreaded her influence on her Hellenic brethren in the Seven Ionian Islands, and in Candia. This is plainly proved by the continual intrigues of the British Lord High Commissioners in Corfu, where the Italian language was encouraged and protected, and the Greek mother tongue disowned and regarded as revolutionary!

Russia had, by her victorious war against Turkey in 1828 and 1829, and the treaty of Adrianople, rendered a *more efficient support* to Greece than any *other* European power, and mainly contributed to the recognition of her full independence by Turkey; yet she did not possess any strong hold on the affections of the mass of the people, though she belonged to the oriental Greek church, and her influence was at the time circumscribed to the keeping up of a Napist or Russian party, consisting chiefly of the clergy and of some bribed chieftains, who formed an armed vanguard for the future advance of her armies on Constantinople.

France, on the contrary, sincerely desiring the consolidation and free development of the young kingdom, showed herself more disinterested, and in consequence possessed more than any other of the great powers the affection and gratitude of the Greek nation, who looked upon the French as their true allies, who had made the most generous sacrifices for her preservation and liberty. France, therefore, succeeded, by the ingenuous conduct of her embassador, M. de Lagréné, to secure an alliance, which might become important with regard to her political relations in Syria and Egypt.

King Otho went to Germany in 1836, and married the beautiful princess Amelia of Oldenburgh. Count Armansperg, in the meantime, governed Greece like a sovereign, and by his intimate alliance with the British embassador, Sir Edmund Lyons, the successor of Mr. Dawkins, the count, by degrees, attempted to emancipate himself from the control of the court of Bavaria. But the dissatisfaction in Greece with his protection of the Phanariotes, and his arbitrary and interested measures, became general; his influence was even undermined in Munich by the Bavarians themselves, and King Lewis demanded his dismissal. On the 14th of February, 1837, King Otho arrived in the Piræus with his lovely queen, and Mr. Rudhardt, the new prime minister. The chief chancellor quite unexpectedly received his *congé*, to the great disgust of Sir Edmund Lyons and the universal satisfaction of the Greeks. Count Armansperg soon after left and retired to his estates in Switzerland, not without having improved his own fortnne with the spoils of poor Hellas. This was the common opinion both in Greece and Bavaria.

Mr. Rudhardt was a very plain and honest Bavarian, who had distinguished himself as a provincial governor in Germany, and as an able speaker in the national assembly at Munich, but he was totally ignorant of the relations, language, and politics of Greece. He arrived unprepared for his high station; with the best intentions, he resolved to carry out the Bavarian system in Greece, and not to listen, either to the insinuations of Sir Edmund Lyons, or to those of M. de Lagréné, or the Greeks themselves—but just straightway to execute the orders he regularly received by couriers from the council of King Lewis of Bavaria. Yet, instead of gaining friends and partisans by standing aloof from all parties, he soon found himself surrounded by enemies, who joined a coalition against him. The miserable state in which Count Armansperg had left the finances, did not furnish the means for maintaining the royal household, the Bavarian army, and numerous officials in different departments of the public service. The storm broke loose against poor Mr. Rudhardt. He resigned in the month of December, 1837, and died broken-hearted on his return to Trieste.

In this dilemma, King Otho resolved upon a change of system, and chose a native Greek minister, the intelligent and active physician, Dr. Glarakis, from Syra. He instantly disbanded the greater part of the German mercenaries and many foreign officials, such as geometers and foresters. He then boldly attempted an improvement of the dilapidated finances by introducing a greater regularity in the perception of the tithes and taxes, and the most rigid economy in the administration, diminishing the fees of some and the pensions of others. But alas! instead of gaining the confidence and good-will of the nation, the government of Mr. Glarakis now lost its power and respect. The parties grew bolder, and a second conspiracy against King Otho was plotted by the Napist party. The leaders taking the mask of hypocrisy, formed a *Philorthodox Society*, which, under the pretence of supporting the sinking Greek Church against encroachments of Protestantism, by placing her under the direct guardianship of Russia, intended nothing less than the overthrow of King Otho's government and the revolt of all the rajahs or Greek subjects of the Porte. The real and important object of this secret rebellion, therefore, had in view the re-union of those four or five millions of Greek and Bulgarian Christians, the re-conquest of Constantinople, and the formation of a Greek empire under the sway of a Russian prince!

The period for so vast an undertaking seemed singularly propitious. The total defeat of Hafiz-Pasha and the Turkish army at Nezib, in Syria, the sudden death of Sultan Mahmoud at Constantinople, and the treacherous surrender of the whole Othoman fleet by the

Capudan-Pasha to the powerful Viceroy of Egypt, had placed the throne of the young Sultan Abdul-Meshid on the very brink of a precipice. An open insurrection broke out in Creta, and Greek intrigues spread the alarm through all the northern provinces of Epirus, Thessaly and Macedonia. But the leaders of the Philorthodox Society, Count Augustin, Capo d'Istrias and ,Nikitas Stammatopulos, were men without talents, means or influence. This second plot, which was to have broken out on New-Year's day, 1840, while King Otho, surrounded by his ministers of state, attended divine service at the Church St. Irene, was revealed, and the conspirators disarmed and imprisoned. Count Augustin fled from Corfu to Alexandria, in Egypt, where he died shortly afterwards. Government was again victorious, but this success did not save the minister, Mr. Glarakis. He resigned, and returned to practice medicine at Syra. The learned and eloquent Zographas was his successor. During the winter, 1840, the greatest exultation and desire of conquest reigned in Greece. Turkey was supposed to be lying in her last agonies, and the Greeks considered it as the most favorable moment for taking up arms, and by a sudden onset invade Thessaly and Epirus, where the Christian population were expected to rise and follow the standard of the cross. The commanders of the royal troops on the Turkish frontiers of Mount Othrys deserted into Thessaly and Albania, proclaiming on their own responsibility the warlike projects of King Otho. Armed bands of mountaineers already began the marauding warfare on the outskirts of Thessaly—while a badly armed and nearly starving Turkish army began to assemble at Larissa, at the foot of Mount Olympus.

The Albanian chiefs received the .Greek officers, with their glittering epaulettes and golden tassels, very well. "They were ready," they said, "to rise and assemble their clansmen, but they first wanted to see the color of King Otho's money;" and when the Greek emissaries then, in their disappointment, made fine speeches about patriotism and liberty, the Albanians beckoned them to begone, with their usual "*besa dia besa.*" Let peace be among us.

In Candia the Greek sympathizers fared still worse. Many unruly and warlike *pallikaria*, among whom were several quiet citizens of the Piræus, such as Lambrinidis and Captain Manolas, who had distinguished themselves in the war of independence, and several hundred others, who, by this expedition, hoped to force government to a public demonstration against Turkey, secretly embarked for Creta. Twenty-five thousand drachms, or three thousand American dollars, a large sum for Greece, were collected—every official giving his share—and some Hydriote barks, no doubt, with the secret connivance of the Greek minister of the navy, Mr. Kreesis, occupied the royal arsenal at Poros, and embarking cannon, small arms and ammunition, set sail for Candia. A decisive blow might perhaps have been struck, and a revolutionary fire spread throughout European Turkey; but the indecision and timid politics of King Otho, in every measure yielding to the inspirations of the Court at Munich, suffered the only favorable moment to pass—and thus all the private exertions of the Greeks were in vain.

The alliance of the four great powers in July, 1840, decided the fate of Syria and Egypt, and once more supported the tottering skeleton of the Othoman empire. The Turkish Admiral Tahir-Pasha landed with troops on Creta. The Candiotes proved traitors to their Greek auxiliaries. The brave Captains Lambrinidis and Manolas were treacherously slaughtered during a parley by the Turks, and their followers, robbed of their arms and baggage, fled to the coast, where they were saved by a British man-of-war. The Greek government now publicly disavowed the disturbances on the frontier, and declared its peaceful intentions towards Turkey. But this declaration only augmented the general dissatisfaction in Greece, and the hate against King Lewis of Bavaria, whom the Greeks looked upon as the main cause of the unwarlike and anti-national measures of their own government. Zographas, the prime minister, had negotiated a commercial treaty with Turkey, which proved unfavorable to the Greek maritime and commercial interests, to which King Otho refused his ratification. A violent outbreak against the premier took place at Athens; he retired, and his successor found himself in a still more difficult position, without any hope of extricating himself, except by contracting a new loan to cover the running expenses of government. It was Austria, who, with the guarantee of King Lewis of Bavaria, granted a loan of one million of dollars.

The Russian or Napistic party continued in its efforts to nourish the universal discontent, and the Athenian newspapers, particularly "*The Age*" and "*The Friend of the People*," began to sound the trumpet of a crusade against the ministry. The London Morning Chronicle, which at that time was considered the organ through which the foreign office communicated its opinions and prejudices to the public, went even farther—its columns were filled with injurious articles against the Greek government, and the most scandalous attacks against the person of the king and queen, in which the kind and benevolent Otho was called "the puny wretch who was permitted to trample on Greece—who hesitated at no fraud, and blushed at no falsehood." These calumnies appeared in the form of letters, from a correspondent at Athens; but it was evident that they originated in diplomatic circles, where dark intrigues were known, of which the public were ignorant. It was therefore generally supposed at the time that they flowed from the pen of the bilious Secretary of the British legation, Mr. Griffith, and were not unknown to Sir Edmund Lyons himself.* This correspondence divulged a nefarious attempt of Count Armansperg several years before to retain his position as chief-chancellor or regent of the kingdom, by means of a certificate signed by the physician in ordinary, Doctor Wittmer, the Bavarian Grand Master of Ceremonies, Count Saporta, and other persons holding high offices at court, who declared that the king, being an *idiot*, was unfit to govern the kingdom himself. The existence of such a plot among the Bavarian household officers against the monarch, produced a general outcry of indignation against Dr. Wittmer, who was the only official among those accused by the anonymous writer as still in service at the court of Athens. He was instantly dismissed, and ran some personal danger before his departure from Greece. The whole nation considered itself insulted by the publication of such calumnies in a ministerial paper, and by the insulting manner in which the despicable intrigues of Count Armansperg long after his downfall had been proclaimed with the sanction of the British ministry. The personal enmity of the Greek government and the British legation at Athens now broke out into an open feud. Some miserable Maltese street-porters, who had committed disorders in Athens, and been imprisoned, were, by Sir Edmund Lyons, reclaimed as *British subjects;* and an intoxicated English footman of a traveling lord, who had been arrested at Patras, was not only reclaimed, but the British embassador even insisted on the dismissal of the Greek officers and gendarmes in Patras, threatening with a hostile demonstration of the English squadron off Corfu!

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* I cannot omit to state here a curious fact, which has been grossly perverted in the letters of Mr. Griffith, and since repeated in the silly book of Lord Nugent, and some British Reviews. Among other falsehoods, they accuse the worthy Colonel of Gendarmes, Mr. Sinis, of the horrible crime of having *roasted alive* several Greek shepherds, &c. The truth, as told me by Col. Sinis himself, is this:—Pursuing with his gendarmes a gang of Klephties through the ravines of Mount Othrys, he found a shepherd sitting near a heap of ashes. To his questions the *tzupanis* answered that he had burnt some wood a few days ago, and that he knew nothing about the robbers. Sinis now ordered the gendarmes to put the fellow's head into the ashes, when he singed his beard, and called out: Appendi! the robbers just now roasted and eat my sheep; they are hidden in the cave yonder. They were of course immediately surrounded, and soon after captured.

King Otho, thus pressed on all hands, called Alexander Mavrokordatos from London to form a new ministry. This distinguished Phanariote, the rival of Kolettis and Ypsilantis, so well known for his talents and intrigues during the war of independence, was welcomed by hundreds of Greeks, high and low, who flocked to the Piræus to receive him, and placed themselves under his banner. This popular reception made him arrogant, and relying on the effective support of the English party, of which he was considered the leader, he in a somewhat high tone demanded of King Otho the dismissal of the foreign officers, the formation of a new ministry after his own choice, the independence of the synod, the publication of a budget, and the enlargement of the powers of the council of state—all measures that might be considered as preparatory to the introduction of a constitution. Maximilian, the crown-prince of Bavaria, and elder brother of King Otho, being at that time a guest in the palace at Athens, advised his royal brother at once to accept the propositions of Mavrokordatos. But the king, displeased at the proud bearing of the man, and yielding to the insinuations of his German counselors, rejected his propositions, and sent him off as embassador to Constantinople. The English party was thus defeated; the French had its turn. The governor of Syra, Khristidis, an inconsiderate and superficial man, the *protegé* of the French embassador, M. de Lagrene, was selected prime minister, and a new system began.

The royal authority once more prevailed. Alone, and abandoned by his partisans, Mavrokordatos departed from the Piræus for Turkey. All intelligent and patriotic Greeks were exceedingly sorry at this event, yet they unanimously blamed the manner in which that statesman had demanded concessions, which, if made with some moderation, would possibly have saved Greece from the dangerous violence of a revolution. The Bavarian *camarilla* at court, in their short-sighted vanity, looked upon all this as a triumph; but their victory was not destined to be of long duration, nor to yield the golden fruits they so fondly had anticipated! The young sultan, Abdul-Meshid, in the meantime had come off victorious in his war against the Pasha of Egypt. Having recovered his Syrian provinces, the island of Candia, and his fleet, by the arms of the allied powers, a large Turkish army was assembled in Thessaly, and some light troops encamping on the frontiers of Greece threatened an invasion of Thermopylæ. Yet the diplomatic intercession of the great powers soon put a stop to these military demonstrations, and thus a second time thwarted the prospects of the warlike pallikars in Greece. All these disappointments augmented the dissatisfaction with the administration, and an external motive was now only wanting to kindle into a bright flame the glowing embers. This catastrophe was brought about by the financial distress of the country in 1843.

It is a well authenticated fact, that Greece never received the entire sum of the two first series of the loan of sixty millions of francs guarantied by the powers. Nearly sixteen millions had beforehand been expended in indemnities to Turkey, for the evacuation of Athens and Eubœa by the Othoman troops, and in discounts and commissions to the bankers; *ten* millions more were absorbed in Munich by the enormous expenses for the equipment and transport of the Bavarian troops to Greece; the rest of the two series and the loan advanced by Austria had contributed to support the government of King Otho during these ten years—1833 to 1843. The internal resources of Greece herself had, indeed, showed a rapid increase from seven millions of drachms, or 1,170,000 dollars, in 1834, to seventeen or eighteen millions of drachms, or 3,000,000 dollars, in 1843; but the budget was only nominal, and there existed an annual deficit of several millions of drachms in the real expenditure of government, which were only covered by artificial means; nor had it succeeded, in this long course of time, in opening new resources, which might have enabled it to pay off the pending interests of the loan. The payment of the third series of the loan was refused by Russia and England, and by the languid system which had been adopted, the administration was, in the year 1843, at last placed in the difficult situation of not being able to fulfil its obligations to the foreign powers, nor even to satisfy the many different claims and demands rising in the kingdom itself. All the parties which hitherto had fought separately, and therefore had easily been defeated by government, now, as it were, united and took hold of this dilemma, checking the activity of the administration, in order to represent it as unpopular and insufficient, and with loud clamors to demand a national constitution. The press continued the attack with the greatest acrimony, reviling all measures of government with that innate Greek censoriousness, slandering even the most worthy foreigners, who faithfully and skilfully devoted their talents to the welfare and civilization of that neglected country. This injustice and want of discrimination done to private individuals, we find to be an inherent evil in all violent revolutions. The Napists, after their repeated defeats, now renewed their activity, and this time they received the direct support of the Russian embassador, Katakasi. A third conspiracy was secretly planned, which a few months later had a better success than the former attempts, and effected a total change of government.

It is now historically proved that the views of the Russian party tended not only to the subversion of the Bavarian rule, but even to a *change of dynasty*. During the summer of 1843, a curious libel in the Greek language was published at Constantinople, and widely distributed throughout the kingdom, in which the situation of Greece was depicted in the darkest colors, and it was suggested that the noble-minded Hellenic nation could only be saved by placing a certain powerful prince of the true orthodox Greek religion on the throne, by dismissing all the foreigners from the public service, and by forming a national assembly and a new constitution. The orthodox prince thus recommended was supposed to be the Duke of Leuchtenberg, the son-in-law of the Russian autocrat. Certain it is, that the cabinet of St. Petersburgh directly supported the machinations, by the publication of the infamous note of Count Nesselrode of March 7th, 1843, in which he openly authorizes any popular movement against the Greek government. In this note, the Russian prime minister not only peremptorily demanded the payment of the pending interest of the Russian dividend of the loan, but with the harshest and most unrelenting expressions reprehended the conduct of King Otho's administration in the presence, as it were, of the whole nation, and requested the instant dismissal of the army and navy officers and the strictest economy in the finances, as Greece, being placed under the immediate protection of the great powers, had no need whatever of an army or a fleet.

King Otho, intimidated by the haughty tone of Russia, and not possessing fortitude enough to return the answer which so unjust a command deserved, resolved to comply, without reflecting on the consequences of dismissing several hundred Greek officers, who immediately were to plan a conspiracy against his throne.

Nearly all the German officials, with the exception of some household officers at court, the professors of the university and colleges, and the engineers at Nauplion, were dismissed from the royal service, and sent back to Bavaria. The cavalry and artillery, with the exception of one squadron of lancers and a light battery, were disbanded, and the horses sold. The infantry shared the same fate, the battalions were reduced to companies. The corvettes and other vessels, even the royal steamer, were ordered to Poros to be unrigged, and the navy officers and crews were discharged.

Yet all these forced measures were in vain; and though one million and a half of the interest were paid off in July, the three protecting powers, by their conference at London, sent in a collective note to King Otho, on the 5th September, 1843, in which the most unjust demand was made, that the king should give them an assignation on the principal revenues of the Greek kingdom, and call together a national assembly.

The contending parties in Greece thus openly encouraged and invited to rebel against their sovereign, had now united, and a conspiracy of the disbanded officers was organized during July and August. Old Kolokotronis had died in 1839; but the commander of the forces at Athens, Colonel Kalergis, from Crete; Makry-Yannis, of Athens; Griziotis, of Eubœa; Andreas Londas, of Vastizza; Theodoros Grivas, of Aiarnania; Rhigas-Palamides, of Kalabrita; Colonel Spiridon Milios, and many others, were at the head of the plot. The 16th September was fixed upon for its execution. Some vague rumors about a riot had begun to spread in Athens, and an intense excitement prevailed, but nothing was known with certainty. An Englishman, who, during the regency of Count Armansperg, had figured as prefect of police at Athens, and still kept up his connections with the people, learned the names of several of the conspirators, and hurried to the king, who, assembling the ministers, ordered the leaders to be arrested and placed before a court-martial. Vlachopulos, the minister of war, not knowing that Colonel Kalergis was at the head of the plot, called him to his presence, and commanded him to keep the garrison under arms, and ready to occupy the palace and squares of the city. The crafty Cretan, with a bold countenance, requested artillery and ammunition, and then sent the order to all the leaders of the conspiracy to strike the blow the same night between the 14th and 15th September.

The old warriors of Makry-Yannis were to assemble in his dwelling, situated near the temple ruins of Olympian Jove, on the outskirts of the town, while the pallikars of Griziotis from Eubœa, who already were on the march, received orders to occupy the heights and passes of Mount Parnes, and there await the fire-signals from Athens.

The troops of the garrison, consisting of two battalions of infantry, some light companies, a squadron of lancers, and four field-pieces, were at that time commanded by Greeks; the only two German sub-lieutenants still in service at Athens were ignorant of the movement, and afterwards hurried to the palace. A large number of Greek officers in glittering uniforms suddenly appeared in the theatre, to the astonishment of the quiet citizens, who had no certain knowledge of what was going on. The Russian embassador, Katakasi, gave a brilliant party that night, where many of the leaders were invited. When the clock struck twelve at midnight, Kalergis, with his officers, left the ball-room, called the troops to arms, and proclaimed the constitution. *Syntagma*, *syntagma*, (*constitution*,) re-echoed from hundreds of voices, and, at the head of his lancers, Kalergis now led the troops in perfect order through the large avenue of Hermes, and formed them in battle array on the square in front and rear of the new palace, while small detachments commanded by the young officers of the military college of the Euelpides were sent off to the dwellings of the councilors of state, whom they arrested and brought together in the council-hall. Rockets were fired, and the wild pallikars from Eubœa, on the summits of Parnes, answered the signals by lighting huge fires along the mountain tops, and then hurried downward to the city. The armed police or gendarmerie was at that time a faithful and well-organized corps, commanded by General Vlachopulos, the brother of the minister of war. He had ordered a strong detachment of gendarmes to guard the palace, and another body to observe the house of Makry-Yannis, which was the rendezvous of the pallikars. The alarm being given, and the inhabitants of Athens hurrying to arms, Makry-Yannis, with his retainers, were reinforced by the wild old warrior Kostas and another band. These meeting with the gendarmes, a skirmish ensued, in which a sergeant was shot; but Makry-Yannis rushing between the combatants, called out to them: "Stop, brethren, what are ye doing." He then explained their purpose, and the whole party, pallikars and gendarmes, marched off to the palace.

Here all was confusion; the guards had been doubled, and an adjutant to the king, Captain Skeinstorf, sent off to bring up the artillery for the protection of the palace. But arriving at the artillery-barracks, the Greek commander, Captain Schinas, gave him the haughty answer, "Go and tell his Majesty that the guns soon will be at the palace, at the order of Colonel Kalergis." The adjutant galloped back, and finding the infantry already forming before the gate of the palace, he put spurs to his horse and dashed through the line, overturning some soldiers, but succeeded in entering the palace with the news of the treachery of the whole garrison. Shouts of "Long live the constitution—long live the national assembly," resounded along the lines and among the thick crowds of armed Greeks, who were gradually approaching from all parts of the city, the Piræus, and the environs.

The generals, Gardikiotis, Grivas, and minister of war, Vlachopulos, came out of the palace, and ordered the troops and the people to retire; they were instantly surrounded, arrested, and conducted as prisoners to the barracks. The king then sent the master of ceremonies, Colonel Hess, the most hated man in the kingdom, to the balcony; but on making his appearance, the tremendous outcry of the multitude forced the Bavarian to retire. King Otho now stepped forward, and speaking French, he called for "le Colonel Kalergi"—to which Kalergis, saluting his majesty with his sabre from the front of the lancers, answered with a loud voice in Greek—"Sire! I am not now a colonellos, but a citizen of Greece, who with his fellow citizens most humbly requests your majesty to grant us a constitution." The king then required time for consideration, and ordered the troops and the people to retire." "Sire!" replied the steady Kalergis, "it is impossible, until your majesty has consulted with the council of state." The king retired.

The whole city was on the move; muskets were fired in the streets, and the armed peasants and mountaineers flocked in from the country. It was now two o'clock in the morning, when a rattling noise was heard, and a brigade of artillery came up at full gallop. The guns were instantly unlimbered, and posted before the front and side doors of the palace.

In the mean time Colonel Spiridon-Milios, at the head of the officers of the military college, entered the *boulenterion*, or council-hall, and placing a brace of pistols on the table before him, ordered the trembling councilors, many of whom knew well how indifferent they had been about the welfare of their native country—leaving the most important affairs to the care of the Bavarian secretaries, to declare, that the council of state would take upon themselves the responsibility of the present movement, and hereby express their thanks to the people and the army for their admirable conduct, and decree—"that the whole army should take the oath of fidelity to the country and the constitutional throne."

The old councilors looked at each other, and then at the stern countenance of Spiridon-Milios, who, with his hand on his pistols, was the man to have shot down on the spot the first who would have dared to attempt any remonstrance. The act was therefore laid ready before them, and instantly signed. Then Andreas Londas, accompanied by a deputatiou of members, was sent off with this important document to the people and army assembled before the palace. Here the first constitutional act was read and received with loud acclamations. During the recital of the oath, the whole population raised their hands to heaven spontaneously, and the old Andreas was lifted up in the arms of the citizens and carried in triumph back to the council. An address to the king was now drawn up by Spiridon-Milios, and a commission appointed to carry it to the king and return with his reply. His majesty demanded to consult with the embassadors of the protecting powers, but this was immediately refused by the assembled multitude; and when the diplomatists in their state-coaches and in full uniform arrived before the palace, Colonel Kalergis riding up to them, said, "that this was wholly a Greek affair between king and people, and that until the king had terminated his consultations with his council of state, the foreign ministers could by no means be permitted to enter the palace." Baron Prokesch von Osten, the Austrian, attempted to advance; but perceiving the extreme excitement of the people and the firm array of the cavalry, he returned to his coach and departed. Baron Brassier de Saint Simon, the Prussian burst out into violent protestations; but Kalergis and his staff-officers retained their *sang froid*, and quietly answered the hair-brained Prussian—"As for you, Master Simon, you have but too often entered the palace; and it is to the counsels of yourself, and such as you, that his majesty now owes all his difficulties."

The commission of the council of state still remained with the king. Otho proposed to consult with his father—with the powers—demanded three months—a fortnight—nothing could be granted; an implicit acceptance of the address was claimed.

Every delay seemed dangerous—signs of impatience were seen among the people and the soldiery. Cries were heard "to batter down the gates and storm the palace." While Kalergis, on horseback, was haranguing the multitude to keep them quiet, a gendarme at a window on the ground-floor of the palace most imprudently leveled his musket at him, but a German officer caught his arm and thrust him back. A shot at the commander-in-chief at that moment might have had the most melancholy consequences, as the enraged people, no doubt, would have taken the palace by assault, captured and deposed the king, and put all the Bavarian officers and courtiers to the sword.

During this interval of suspense and intense excitement, a ridiculous scene took place on the square before the palace. A young, elegantly-dressed Greek, lately returned from Paris, pierced through the crowd and the military, ascended the front stairs of the palace, and began to harangue the assembled people on liberty and the constitution, but with so affected and strange an accent, that the multitude, believing him to be a foreigner, cried "*joucha! joucha!* let him perish"—and making a rush forward, and laying hold on the supposed Bavarian, would have torn him to pieces, if he had not been saved by Kalergis and his lancers, who carried him, wounded and bleeding, to the hospital.

At last the commission of the state-council made its appearance and was received with unbounded joy, for they at once announced that King Otho had consented to the dismissal of the ministry and the foreigners in the Greek service, to the appointment of a new popular ministry, and the immediate convocation of a national assembly for the purpose of drawing up a constitution.

When morning dawned upon Athens, the troops and people, in various picturesque costumes, were still assembled before the palace; but the best order was observed during all the agitation of this most stirring night-scene: not a window of the palace, or garden pale, had been broken—not a flower gathered in the royal pleasure-grounds. Refreshments were carried round to the wearied soldiers and citizens, but no intemperance took place here among the sober Greeks, as would have been the case in other countries in Europe. Foreign ladies actually walked without fear about the palace, as spectators of this extraordinary sight. All the housetops around were covered with women and children, while on the square below thousands of *fezies*, or red skull-caps, were flung into the air; and the *zitos*, the music of the military bands, the singing and shouting, denoted the general harmony and gladness of this lively and good-natured people.

Different was the scene within the halls of the palace! As soon as the king had given his consent, the ranks of the military opened, and the foreign embassadors were permitted to enter. They found the royal family somewhat re-assured. Poor Amelia and her elder sister, the delicate duchess of Oldenburgh, had suffered some fear in the beginning; but the queen soon showed more fortitude than her royal consort, and advised him to mount on horseback and appear before the troops. Both Otho and Amelia were beloved by the Greek people; their annual progress through the different provinces of the kingdom had always been a continued triumphal procession. Personally they would never have been exposed to any real danger.

Amelia's heart was deeply touched when she learned that not the smallest injury had been done or attempted, either at the palace or the gardens, nor that any shout of insult had been uttered against herself or the king.

The foreign ministers played but a sorry part in the halls of the palace. When Otho with great animation gave them the details of what had occurred, the French embassador, M. Piscatory, was the only one who showed some presence of mind, and encouraged, and with French politeness, even complimented the young king "on the glorious days that would now dawn on Hellas, through the union of king and people." Baron Prokesch spoke with dignity. The Englishman stood aloof, and was silent; the Russian and Prussian are said to have shed tears, each in a separate window.

Though the mass of the people had hailed the constitution promised by King Otho with signs of satisfaction, the Russian party, the intriguers, and the dismissed officers, were quite astonished at the facility with which they had overcome the well-known obstinacy of his majesty, who thus had yielded to their demands. Many felt disappointed, distinctly betraying their dissatisfaction. Violent discussions arose in the council; the Russian party having the majority, and being bent on forcing the king to abdicate, proposed and obtained a vote, that the king should be required to thank the troops for their *good* behavior, to promise promotion to the officers, and a medal to all those who had aided or been present during the transactions of this glorious day, which in future was to be celebrated as the day of the regeneration of Hellas. The victory of the Russian conspiracy depended on a refusal on the part of the king, which they no doubt had anticipated. Every precaution had been taken in case of an assault on the palace, to transfer the royal family to the Piræus. The royal steamer had, by a previous arrangement with the prefect of the naval station at Poros, been equipped, and lay now with its boilers hissing at Ægina. On the first signal it would arrive at the Piræus, and bring the high personages to any part of Italy they might choose.

A second deputation then presented themselves with these hard and absurd demands, which afterwards were said to have been unknown to Kalergis and the army. The king received them surrounded by the foreign ministers. The tone of the speaker, Lidorikis, was haughty; only a quarter of an hour was allowed to his majesty for deliberation, and it represented to him that the army insisted on the conditions exacted. Otho hesitated. The queen, in an adjoining apartment, is said to have pressed him with all the earnestness of affection;—still, he remained undecided—when Lidorikis stepping forward, said these hard words: "Sire, if you do not accept these conditions, the Greeks will instantly storm your palace, cut down your Bavarians, and their blood will be on your head."

This was the moment of real danger; the populace, tired of the protracted scene of fifteen hours, and illuded by the intriguers as to the importance of the demanded guarantees, showed tokens of ferocity, and began to shout and clamor—when M. Piscatory, approaching the king, exclaimed: "Sire, you have made already the greatest sacrifice: this is a comparative trifle; yield them this, and France will guarantee you the integrity of your crown!"

Otho yielded to these arguments, at the very last moment, saying with much feeling: "that though as a man, he felt the indignity offered to him, and would not personally have given way, yet as a sovereign, he was bound to concede even this point for the welfare of Greece."

The Bishop of Attica, heading a procession of priests, now entered the palace. The king and the council of state took the oath to the new constitution. Accompanied by the foreign ministers, he then appeared on the great balcony in front of the city, where he was welcomed with continued shouts by the multitude below. At 3 o'clock in the afternoon, on Friday, the 15th September, 1843, the troops with their colors flying, and their bands playing the national airs of Rhigas, marched off, and the crowds dispersed quietly; the same evening, perfect tranquillity reigned throughout Athens. The news of the bloodless revolution in the capital spread with the greatest rapidity all over Greece, and was everywhere hailed with joy. Kalergis had sent off a courier, who arrived at Nauplion on Friday at midnight. His dispatches were received by the Greek officers who were initiated in the plot. They went in a body to the commandant of the fortress, Colonel von Reineck, a Prussian Philhellene, who, being the brother-in-law of Mavrokordatos, was well acquainted with all the secret movements of the leaders. Thus the Greek officers, to their utter astonishment, found the old colonel in full uniform, saluting them with a "long life to the constitutional king of Hellas." In the presence of all the troops of the garrison, the oath was taken.

ART. IV.—TENNESSEE—HER MANUFACTURES AND INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

[WILL not some of our friends in Tennessee prepare for us a paper this summer upon the history, wealth, resources, etc., of the state, similar to the papers we have been publishing on the other states? We really desire this, and endeavored, when there last summer, to obtain sufficient data for an article of our own; but how much better can it be written by some one upon the spot. The paper we now present is interesting in many respects.]—ED.

THE situation of Tennessee as an interior state, makes it highly necessary that she should be connected by rail-roads with the Gulf of Mexico and with the Atlantic. This will appear to be the more important, when we consider her mineral wealth and her manufacturing power, to say nothing of her vast agricultural resources. As a manufacturing country, Tennessee has advantages equal, if not superior, to any state in the Union. She has an abundance of cheap provisions, which is an important element of manufacturing prosperity. Her climate is healthful and agreeable, removed alike from the extremes of heat or cold. Cotton can be and is grown successfully, the average yield per acre for several years past being equal to that of more southern states. Either steam or water-power can be used in manufacturing as may be thought most advisable, since there are immense quantities of excellent coal in her mountains, and her streams are admirably suited to manufacturing purposes. When the rail-roads, connecting us with New-Orleans, Mobile, Savannah, and Charleston are completed, we will be able to enter into successful competition with any other country in the business of manufacturing. The effects upon ourselves of this change in our pursuits will be no less gratifying than astonishing. Whenever Tennessee becomes a manufacturing state, as her natural advantages eminently fit her to be, and as she must sooner or later become, instead of sending her corn, hogs, beef, cattle, and many other things of a similar nature to distant markets at great trouble, risk, and expense, her factories will furnish a market at home. These articles will command better prices than they now do, and we will then be in no danger of hearing any complaint about the productions of our farms "perishing in our barns and barn yards for want of a market." If, instead of sending off so much of our cotton in its raw state, we would send more of it off in cotton fabrics, we would realize all the benefits arising from its manufacture which are now enjoyed by those at a distance. By comparing the condition of those states that are engaged in manufacturing with that of those that are not, we may learn the good effects resulting from building and sustaining manufacturing establishments among ourselves.

It appears from a report, published by order of the General Assembly of Connecticut, that while 13,317,170 pounds of cotton were consumed in one year in that state, the value of three manufactured articles, cloth, yarn, and batting, was $2,984,384. Estimating the cotton at ten cents per pound, the cost of the raw material would have been $1,331,917, which being taken from the value of the manufactured articles mentioned above, would leave $1,652,467 as profits, after paying the expenses of its manufacture.

This cotton might easily and well have been manufactured in a southern state. Then the cost of transportation would have been saved, the profits would have accrued to the benefit of our own people, and all classes of the community, the merchant, farmer, mechanic, and operative, would all have experienced the happy effect of having this cotton manufactured at home. When we reflect upon the profitableness of this branch of industry, it is astonishing that no more interest is felt in it, and no more attention paid to it, in the cotton states.

A very intelligent gentleman, who was engaged in this business some years ago in Lawrence county in this state, F. Buchanan, Esq., formerly speaker of the House of Representatives, and a man of clear discriminating mind, sound judgment, and great practical information, estimated the profits of a $25,000 establishment in that county at 16 per cent. per annum, and of a $50,000 establishment at 36 per cent., after deducting 2½ per cent. for insurance against fire; and he remarks, "we are astonished to see the increase of profits rising so *rapidly* proportioned to the capital." These estimates may seem to many extravagant, but the information of Mr. Buchanan was eminently practical, and his estimates may well be relied upon. It is proper to remark, however, that they were made when cotton was much lower than it has been during the last two years, and when, as a matter of course, the profits of manufacturing were much greater than they have been since. The high price of cotton has to a considerable extent diminished the profits of cotton manufactures during the last two years; but it is not reasonable to suppose that cotton will maintain for any great length of time the high prices which it brought during the two years preceding the crop that is now going to market. It is evident that the manufacture of cotton will be more profitable when cotton is selling at six cents than when it is selling at twelve, and in our estimates of the future profits of manufacturers, we may safely conclude that cotton will not command the high prices which it did last year and the year before. The falling off in the consumption of cotton in the Northern states during the last year is solely attributable to the high price of cotton, as is clearly shown by the fact that the 518,039 bales consumed in 1849 cost only $15,023,131, whilst the 404,108 bales consumed in 1851 cost $20,205,400. Although the quantity consumed in 1851 was decreased, the value was increased more than $5,000,000. From this we would infer that, so soon as the price of the raw material is reduced, the quantity consumed will be increased greatly, and such is the fact. The well informed commercial correspondent of the Washington Union, on the 27th of April, 1852, says, "The United States manufacturers are also more actively employed, and new mills are being constructed in many localities. The quantity of cotton taken by the United States manufacturers is already greater than for the whole of last year, not taking into account the quantities consumed in the interior of the South and West."

The number of spindles in Tennessee in 1840 was 16,813, and in 1850, 36,000, an increase of near 20,000 in ten years. Gen. James, of Rhode Island, estimates that 10,000 spindles will consume 4,500 bales of cotton per annum. If this be so, and we see no reason to dispute it, the number of spindles in Tennessee in 1850 was sufficient to consume 16,200 bales per annum. It is more than probable that there will be a greater proportionate increase during the next ten years than there was from 1840 to 1850.

Should this be the case, there will then be in use a sufficient number of spindles to consume near 40,000 bales of cotton per annum. Are these not reasonable expectations? Manufacturing has been found, by actual experience, to be more profitable than farming, for the man engaged in the latter often does not realize more than six per cent. upon his capital, whilst, according to Mr. Buchanan, the manufacturer often realizes from 16 to 36 per cent. Other sections have grown rich by manufacturing our raw material, and afterwards selling to us the manufactured articles. Our labor is not sufficiently diversified. It is almost exclusively agricultural; and since, owing to our interior position, we are in a great degree cut off from market, our income is comparatively small. This is a highly injurious state of affairs, which we trust will not long continue. The remedy is, in building factories to consume our surplus agricultural products, and to furnish employment to our people. By pursuing this course a demand will be created for our surplus produce, and at the same time there will be a relative decrease in the number of those engaged in agriculture. How long, we may well ask, will it be before the people of the South will fully realize the importance of this subject? Coarse cotton goods, suitable for negro clothing, and cotton yarns, are the articles that our southern factories should, for a considerable time, be engaged in making, leaving to northern and European factories the manufacture of those finer fabrics which require more skill, capital, and experience than we at present possess, and which are not so much demanded by the immediate wants of the southern people. The advantages of our situation, our nearness to the cotton fields, and our superior natural facilities for manufacturing, render any protection from the general government, in the shape of high duties upon foreign imports, entirely unnecessary and highly injurious, even if the general government had the constitutional right to afford such protection. The South needs free and unrestricted commerce. Under a system of comparatively low duties, not only has the value of our great staple, cotton, vastly increased, but there has also been an increase in the value of cotton goods exported from the United States of near $4,000,000 per annum. The value of cotton goods exported from the United States in 1851 was $7,241,205, whilst it was only $3,545,481 in 1846, the last year of the restrictive policy. It is, therefore, evident that we, particularly of the southern states, should not feel ourselves dependent upon the general government for any aid to enable us to engage profitably in manufacturing. The true interests of the manufacturers in all sections of the Union require low and uniform duties upon foreign imports, and not those which are constantly fluctuating. No other than low duties can ever be permanent, and therefore manufacturers should advocate a system of moderate duties, and thereby avoid the evils consequent upon an ever-changing system.

Tennessee is not only admirably adapted to the manufacture of cotton, but woolen fabrics may be manufactured here with great success eventually. Large portions of the state, which would otherwise be of but little value, are well adapted to the raising of sheep. Mark R. Cockrill, of Nashville, an experienced and practical farmer, expresses the opinion, that as fine wool can be grown in the southern states as can be found in the world, and he says, that "all the cotton region is adapted to wool and sheep." In some places in our state there are large tracts of country where the lands are cheap, the population sparse, and the winters mild and open, and these are the portions of the state where we must expect sheep raising to be carried on successfully. The necessity for raising wool in the United States is apparent, when we remember that we imported 32,548,491 pounds of raw wool during the year ending the 30th of June, 1851, besides the woolen fabrics which we imported during the same year, and which amounted to $19,396,709. The growth and manufacture of wool must become a business of much importance in Tennessee. Iron, also, must sooner or later become a great interest in this state. The hills and mountains of East and Middle Tennessee are filled with iron ore of the finest quality. Already there are many furnaces and forges in operation, and the number must increase with the increasing development of the country. When the immense resources of Tennessee shall be developed, her coal, her iron, and her marble, which have hitherto been locked up in her mountains, find an outlet to market, and her manufacturing power be brought into full use, then, indeed, will a new era in her history commence. Among the causes which have prevented Tennessee from engaging extensively in manufacturing, the most prominent has been the difficulty of getting the manufactured articles to market.

We need, and that greatly, good roads for the transportation of our produce to market. It has been well said that the "construction of good roads is the best evidence of the emergence of a people from a state of rudeness, and their improvement always keeps pace with the national progress in wealth, numbers, industry, and science." The greatest advantages arising from rail-roads are not the direct profits to the stockholders, though these are often great, but they are, if we may so speak, the incidental advantages. They improve trade, increase the value of real estate, stimulate industry, develop the resources of the country, and give diversity to the pursuits of the people.

In this way they confer countless benefits, and aid greatly in the onward and upward progress of a state. Having barely alluded to some of the advantages of rail-roads, the question is presented, what are we doing in Tennessee in reference to this matter? Are we fully sensible of the great interests at stake, or are we willing for "the forests and the minerals, the treasures above and beneath the surface, to remain unheeded?"

An act was passed by the legislature of Tennessee at its last session, providing for the issuance of bonds to an amount not exceeding $8,000 per mile, for the benefit of the East Tennessee and Virginia, the Chattanooga, Harrison, Georgetown, and Charleston, the Nashville and Southern, the Mobile and Ohio, the Nashville and Memphis, the Nashville and Cincinnati, the Nashville and Northwestern, the South-western, the East Tennessee and Georgia, the Memphis, Clarksville, and Louisville, and the Alabama and Winchester rail-road companies, so far as the main trunk roads to be constructed by said companies lie within the limits of this state. The bonds are not to be issued until a sufficient amount of bona fide subscriptions shall have been obtained to grade, bridge, and prepare for the iron rails, the whole extent of the main trunk lines to be constructed by each of the companies within this state, and until a section of thirty miles shall actually have been graded, bridged, and prepared for the iron rails. Whenever this is done, then the bonds of the state may be issued, to an amount not exceeding $8,000 per mile, for the purpose of purchasing the iron rails, chairs, spikes, and equipments for the road, and for putting down the iron rails.

Thus it is with every additional section or sections of twenty miles, until the whole road is completed. It is made the duty of the companies to pay the interest upon the bonds, and to redeem them when they fall due. At the end of five years after the road is completed, it is made the duty of the company to set apart one per centum per annum upon the amount of the bonds loaned to the company, and to use the same in the purchase of the bonds of the State of Tennessee, which bonds the company shall pay into the treasury of the state after assigning them to the governor, and for which the governor shall give the company a receipt, and as between the state and the company, the bonds so paid in shall be a credit on the bonds issued for the benefit of the company. And the bonds so paid in, and the interest accruing thereon from time to time, shall be held and used by the state as a sinking fund for the payment of the bonds issued to the company; and should the company repurchase any of the bonds issued under the provisions of the act of the last general assembly, they shall be a credit as aforesaid, and canceled. The state is to retain a lien upon the roads to secure herself; and should any company fail to pay the interest upon the bonds issued for its benefit, provision is made in the fifth section of the act by which the road, with all its fixtures, equipments, and every thing pertaining thereto, is to be placed under the management and control of a receiver or receivers, whose duty it shall be to give bond and security to the State of Tennessee, in such penalty as the governor may require for the faithful discharge of his or their duty. And it shall be the duty of the receiver or receivers so appointed to continue in the possession of the road, its fixtures and equipments, and run the same, and manage the entire road until a sufficient sum shall be realized to pay off and discharge the interest due on said bonds, which being done, the receiver or receivers shall surrender the road, fixtures, and equipments to the company. Upon the failure of the company to pay the bonds when they fall due, provisions are made by which the road, with all the property and assets attached thereto, and belonging to the company, may be sold, and the proceeds appropriated to the payment of the bonds. These are some of the main features of the act, though it has many guards and restrictions which are here not even alluded to, and which can only be understood by examining the act itself. The provision which requires an amount of stock to be taken sufficient to grade and bridge the whole road before any bonds can be issued, is intended to prevent the aid of the state being granted to any work, unless there is some assurance that the whole road will be completed.

This is a wise provision, and will save the state from being connected with any road, which will only be commenced and carried on for a short distance, and then abandoned.

Guarded as this act is, the state is absolutely secure, unless the companies shall be unable to pay the interest upon bonds to the amount of $8,000 per mile; nor would the state be in any danger of ultimate loss unless the roads, with all their property, should be worth less than $8,000 per mile, and even in that event the amount of loss which the state would sustain would only be the difference between $8,000 per mile and the amount which the roads would bring when sold, which could not be but trifling. This could not occur until the individual stockholders had lost *all* that they had invested. It is not reasonable to suppose that men of ordinary shrewdness will engage in any undertaking where they will be likely to lose *all* that they have invested. There need not, we think, be the least apprehension that any of the roads mentioned in the act passed by the last Tennessee Legislature, "to establish a system of internal improvements in this state," which will be built, will be unable to pay the interest upon bonds to the amount of $8,000 per mile, and to pay those bonds as they fall due, if, as we sincerely hope may be the case, the roads shall be well graded and prepared for the iron. The greatest source of apprehension is, in our judgment, that a sufficient sum of money may not be expended in grading, bridging, and preparing the road-bed for the reception of the iron, and, as a consequence, the road after it is completed will be of a very inferior character, if not wholly worthless. The object should be, to make a good grade, and to prepare the road well for the reception of the iron rails. To do otherwise, would be but little wiser than to expend a large sum of money in fitting up the interior of a building, the walls of which were unsafe and liable at any time to fall down. The danger is, that companies, in order to avail themselves of state aid, may be content to spend a less sum in doing the local work of the road than is absolutely necessary to make a good road. We think the estimates which are made by some of the cost of grading, bridging, and preparing for the iron rails of many of our Tennessee roads, are entirely too low. If the roads are made as they should be, they will cost more than many of their friends estimate; and unless they are so made, they will neither be advantageous to the country, profitable to the stockholders, nor will the interests of the state be safe. The sum of $8,000 per mile is thought to be sufficient to iron and equip the roads after they are graded. This is, perhaps, true; we see no reason to question it. What then will it require to prepare the road for the iron? This must depend greatly upon the character of the country, the nature of the obstacles to be overcome, and a variety of such things, which can only be determined by a skilful engineer, after an accurate survey. It is thought that $5,000 per mile will be sufficient to prepare many of the roads in Tennessee for the iron rails. This is, we think, a great mistake, if the object be to make a first class road, and to no other should the aid of the state be granted. The local work on the Mobile and Ohio road is estimated at more than $9,000 per mile, and the entire cost of that road is estimated at $18,261 per mile. The local work upon the Selma and Tennessee River Rail-road is estimated at near $8,000 per mile, and the entire cost of that road is estimated at $3,887,695, or something over $18,000 per mile. These two roads have been selected, because t is believed no roads in Tennessee can be graded much cheaper than they can, because the regions of country through which they pass are as favorable to a rail-road as any portion of Tennessee. We do not deny but the roads may be built for less money; but in the end we think it will be found to have been false economy to have expended upon any road in Tennessee a less sum than $18,000 or $20,000 per mile. By all means, no road should have less than $15,000 per mile expended in its construction, if we wish to have good roads.

In view of these estimates, if individuals are willing to come forward and take stock to the amount of $8,000 or $10,000 per mile, can there be any danger that the $8,000 per mile loaned by the state will be lost either in whole or in part? Surely not. If the road should yield only two or three per cent. upon its entire cost, that would be sufficient to pay the interest upon the bonds issued by the state for the benefit of the company; and if, upon a failure of the company to redeem the bonds as they fall due, the road should be sold for only half its entire cost, the state would sustain no loss. We think that in no instance ought the amount loaned by the state to exceed the amount actually expended by the company. If it should only cost $5,000 per mile to prepare a road for the reception of the iron rails, and an additional $8,000 per mile to iron and equip the road, we think the company should itself expend $6,500 per mile, and then the state might loan the remaining $6,500 with which to complete the road. Whenever a road can be graded and prepared to receive the iron at such cheap rates as four or five thousand dollars per mile, the persons interested in that road ought not to wish the state to loan them $8,000 per mile, nor is it their interest that it should be done. The less money that is borrowed, the less will have to be paid back; and if a sufficient amount of subscription could be obtained to iron and equip the road, as well as to grade it, it would be much better that this should be done, and no aid be obtained from the state at all. But the difficulty is in obtaining a sufficient amount without asking the aid of the state. This assistance should be as little as possible. The number of miles of rail-road to which the aid of the state is granted by the act of the last legislature of Tennessee is about 1,000, and if bonds to the amount of $8,000 per mile should be loaned to all of these companies for the whole extent of their roads, the amount of bonds issued would be about $8,000,000, the annual interest upon which would be $480,000. Although we believe the companies themselves would be fully able to meet the accruing interest upon these bonds, and to pay them when they fall due, yet we would not be willing to see Tennessee bonds issued to such a heavy amount, because we think the effect would be to cause a depreciation of those bonds. This would operate injuriously to the companies, and disadvantageously to the state. Nor need there be any apprehension that there will be much more than half that amount of bonds issued. Many of the companies will not be able to bring themselves within the provisions of the act. We would have been glad, however, if the number of roads mentioned had been reduced, or the amount of aid granted had been limited to five or six thousand dollars per mile, for then, we think, all the important roads would have been built, and those only of questionable propriety have been abandoned. Tennessee does not *at this time* need all the roads mentioned in that act, however it may be in future. Every state should be willing to extend its aid to great works of improvement; but this should be done in such a manner as to avoid all danger of taxation by the state for this purpose. We do not think that those who are to be only indirectly benefited by such works should be taxed for the advantage of those who are more immediately and directly interested; but the state, by the judicious use of her credit, may aid these important works without incurring any danger of a resort to taxation, and to such a course there could be no reasonable objections.

If the aid of the state should be granted to only a few leading and important works, the aid might with safety and propriety be extended to $8,000 per mile; but if it should be granted to an almost indefinite number of roads, then the amount should not exceed five or six thousand dollars per mile, and in this way all unnecessary roads would be cut off. Even if a state were to loan its credit to the extent of one-third the cost of the roads within its territory, this would be much more liberal than some states are which are deeply interested in this matter. The companies might be required to raise and expend two-thirds of the amount sufficient to make the road, and the state might safely loan the remaining one-third, taking a lien upon the whole road to secure herself. Any who would be opposed to a state going thus far, certainly would not consider themselves friends to internal improvements. The state has a deep interest in this matter, for as the wealth of the state is increased, the amount o revenue is increased, and that without any increase of taxation.

The taxable property of Tennessee is estimated at one hundred and fifty-nine millions of dollars, and after her rail-roads are completed, it will not be less than two hundred millions, and probably much more. Thus it will be seen, that without any increase of our taxes, we will derive much greater revenue than we now receive; and in fact, we may safely say, that if the state had the whole $8,000,000 to pay, she would, as a state, be richer than she now is. Still, it would not be right for some portions of the state to bear the burdens, whilst others derived the benefits, and therefore we are opposed to taxation by the state for building rail-roads. If rail-roads could be built without any state aid, we would prefer that it should be done; but these works, great in their cost, as well as great in their benefits, must receive some assistance from the state, or they will be unreasonably and ruinously delayed. There need be no fears that the bonds issued by any southern state for the benefit of any rail-road company will be required for the whole extent of the road at once. They will be issued gradually, as the road progresses, and there will be no heavy issuance of bonds at one time. The longer the great works of improvement are delayed, the worse will it be for the southern states, and the longer will they be retarded in the increase of the wealth and population. Those who are most opposed to internal improvements by the general government, should be most in favor of the aid of the state being given to these works, for if they receive neither aid from the states, nor the general government, many of them must be abandoned, not because they are not needed, but because the means cannot be obtained to build them. Georgia has set an example worthy the imitation of her sister states. Although with no more natural advantages, she is far in advance of many of them, solely on account of her internal improvements. She has grown rich and powerful, and is still growing more so, by a judicious expenditure of money.. She has not been afraid to spend hundreds, when by so doing she could gain thousands. She is not, as some of her sister states, "penny wise and pound foolish." The southern states are yet in the infancy of their development. Their mountains and their streams, which have been heretofore almost valueless, are to be the main sources of their wealth. Whether the southern states shall occupy the proud position to which their natural advantages entitle them, and shall enter upon a splendid career of improvement, depends in no small degree upon the action of their respective legislatures during the next two or three years.

Tennessee has led the way, and if they think she has gone too far, as perhaps she has, let them do something towards furthering these great works which all true southern men have so much at heart. In regard to county and city subscriptions to rail-roads, we have only this to say, that we would prefer that the stock so taken should be set apart for county or city purposes, such as the support of the poor, the education of the children, the building of bridges, improving the streets, and all other objects of a similar nature, instead of being divided out in proportion to the amount of tax paid by each one for building the road. The stock taken by the county or city should belong to the county or city, and the dividends arising should be appropriated under the direction of the proper authorities for the benefit of the county or city. By making this stock a county fund, all persons in the county will be benefited by it, and especially those who need the assistance of the county. It may be made a permanent school fund, and the dividends declared by the company upon that stock might be sufficient to establish an excellent system of common schools in the counties, cities, and towns where the stock was taken. In this way, it might be of even more service than in building the rail-road. To divide this county subscription into certificates of stock, and give to each man in proportion to his rail-road tax, and then make these certificates receivable by the company in payment of passage or freight, we think highly objectionable. It would be imposing too great a burden upon the companies in the first years of their existence, to require them to take in all the stock taken by counties and cities, and would perhaps leave nothing to pay the interest upon the state bonds issued for their benefit. We have given our views freely and fully in regard to the action of our last legislature upon this subject, and whilst we see much to admire, we cannot entirely approve of all that has been done. We fear the legislature went rather too far, though we hope no bad consequences will result, and that whatever may be found to be wrong will be amended by future legislatures. The action of our last legislature will tell upon the future destinies of our state; and we sincerely hope that all may be well, and that those who secured the passage of the internal improvement law, will be found to have contributed much to the growth of Tennessee in wealth and population, and to the development of her boundless resources.

ART. V.—OVERFLOW OF THE DELTA OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

REVIEW OF CHARLES ELLET'S REPORT ON THE OVERFLOWS OF THE DELTA OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

This report is the best paper yet published upon the subject. The author brings new facts, new theories, and ably sustains himself in his assumed positions. He is the originator of a new system. which has for its object the prevention of inundation, and the prolongation of low water navigation in certain rivers. Mr. Ellet's report on the Ohio River is entirely convincing.

The reservoirs that he speaks of may be found upon the Ohio, or its tributaries; but whether there can be found eligible sites for similar ones upon the other tributaries of the Mississippi, or whether a sufficient number can be obtained to have any appreciable effect upon that river. admits of doubt. Mr. Ellet's prejudices, as the originator and advocate of a system, it is feared, have in some degree influenced his judgment, and affected his conclusions. His report is valuable, because, if generally read as it should be, it will be the means of throwing new light on this, to many, vexatious subject. It will lead to discussion, criticism, and in the end, to correct conclusions. It is a herculean task to dispel a popular prejudice, and the people generally are prejudiced in favor of outlets; principally, because they are averse to the construction of larger levees, and conceive that all that is necessary to make an outlet is to cut the levee, and let off the water from the river. This, in reality, *is* the sum total of the whole matter. A *crevasse* is considered by all a public calamity—a great disaster; but, call it an *outlet*, and its objectionable features are all removed; it would be a public benefit, a great good. It is believed by us, that an efficient levee system is our only reliance, and a safe one.

Mr. Ellet endeavors to prove that levees are insufficient; that outlets are unavailable to a sufficient extent; and, as a consequence, that we must adopt his "reservoirs." We accept his facts, admire his reasonings, but beg leave to differ from his conclusions. He *assumes*, as the very foundation of his whole report, in the first paragraph of his introduction, that the overflows are more frequent and more extensive, in recent than in former times. He *assumes* that the river rises *higher* in recent than in former times. We deny the truth of this at the outset, except in so far as the height of the river is affected by cut-offs, which undoubtedly raise it, by shortening the plane of descent, at an intermediate point. That we have more frequent, and, perhaps, more extensive *crevasses*, is admitted. We could not well have crevasses before we had *levees*. The overflows *were* more extensive before levees were made than now. These crevasses are occasioned by an increased height of water due to the Raccourci cut-off; by the general neglect and inadequate size of the levees as now made—

the absence of any system of leveeing—the procrastination which postpones the construction of new levees until the very last moment—the false economy which seeks to save a narrow strip of land, by erecting the levees on the very brink of the bank—by the crawfish which perforate the levees; and last, but not least, in the catalogue of causes, by the increased number of timber pirates, irresponsible persons, non-residents, who cut the cypress timber from the public lands during low water, and *cut* the *levees* to get their timber out of the swamps, and to a market, during high water. We are well assured, from good authority, that Grand Levee was cut in this way, and that other crevasses have been made in like manner. These persons cut their timber in such places that a crevasse, and consequent overflow, is necessary (to them) to enable them to get it *out*. They calculate upon crevasses, and crevasses occur at the time and place best suited to their interests.

We have been informed of a certain party of these gentry, who are now cutting, or have cut, from two to three thousand tier, on the lands belonging to the state, and who openly boast that there are not men enough on the Mississippi to prevent a crevasse occurring this year, because a crevasse is necessary to enable them to float out their timber. It is not the citizens of Louisiana who do this; they have other interests which prevent their acting in this manner; they cultivate the soil, and are willing to purchase the swamp land, and get the timber in a legitimate manner, provided they are protected from this unfair competition.

These are the reasons why we have more crevasses now than formerly —reasons which are generally lost sight of, because they are more practical than philosophical.

We maintain, that, independently of cut-offs, the river does not rise higher now than formerly. Prof. C. G. Forshey, than whom no one is more intimately acquainted with the "physics of the Mississippi River," having made it his study for many years, and having made many extended series of observations and measurements, assures us that the average for every decennial period from 1820 to 1850, shows a diminished instead of an increased rise. The average rise from 1820 to 1830, was greater than from 1830 to 1840, and still greater than from 1840 to 1850. All the facts which have come to our knowledge, as well as our own observation, convince us of the truth of Prof. Forshey's results. Prof. F. is of the opinion, that the extension of levees has the effect to *lower* the river, by causing it to excavate a larger channel, in which it can accommodate a larger body of water than before.

Colonel Philip Hickey purchased and took possession of his estate, about four and a half miles below the town of Baton Rouge, in 1802. There was at that time a levee constructed before his place, against which he landed at high-water at the time he took possession. There was then no levee above him nearer than Pointe Coupée; and below, the nearest was in the vicinity of Donaldsonville—no levee above the mouth of Red River.

Mr. Ellet quotes the reply of the late John McDonough to the questions proposed by the joint committee of the legislature:

"When he [John McDonough] first traveled the banks of the Mississippi, fifty years since, on horseback, he was forced to swim his horse across at least twenty or thirty bayous—some of them from fifty to sixty feet in width—which crossed the path he traveled, and entered the Mississippi." "These bayous were on the west bank, between bayou Plaquemine and Red River, and have all been closed in the progress of improvement." These outlets existed everywhere on both banks of the river. Col. Hickey has resided on his estate since 1802; he assures us now, that his levee is no higher than it was then—that it has not been raised an inch—that it is the same levee, and that the water rises no higher against it now than in 1802. The levees now extend to the state line of Arkansas, and the river rises no higher than before.

If *closing* the outlets will not raise the river, how is it that the construction of new outlets will lower it? Old residents upon the river in Pointe Coupée and elsewhere, assure us that their experience is the same as Col. Hickey's.

Our present governor, Jos. Walker, says: "Many years ago he resided in Natchez; then, there were no levees above the mouth of Red River. At that time it was proposed to extend the levees from the mouth of Red River to the state line. Immediately engineers, mathematicians, and others, made examinations, measurements, and reports, showing, beyond the possibility of doubt, that if all the water which then overflowed the banks of the river, between these points, was confined to the channel, the river below would be raised *fifteen feet* above the tops of the levees—that lower Louisiana would be totally and irretrievably ruined. They proved it to a demonstration in the *same manner* Mr. Ellet has now done." The levees *have* been extended to the state line, far above, and the river rises no higher than before—not one inch. On the contrary, notwithstanding we have had the levees extended, the Red River and Raccourci cut-offs made since, the highest water-mark of 1851, (of late years the highest *below* the cut-off,) is still three and a half inches below the mark of 1828, at Baton Rouge. Before levees were made the river was *full*, and water enough escaped over its banks to overflow *all* the alluvial lands from the mouth of the Ohio to the Gulf of Mexico. The river rose as high then as now, notwithstanding the loss. The *whole* of the water is *now* confined to the channel of the Mississippi, (Atchafalaya, Plaquemine, and Lafourche, excepted of course,) through this state, and yet it is denied by many that the river enlarges, increases in capacity as the levees are extended. Mr. Ellet says we cannot depend upon the progressive enlargement of the river; it does not enter into a single calculation of his; all his estimates of the effect of an increased amount of water confined to the channel, are based upon *the present* capacity of the Mississippi.

All the alluvial lands of Louisiana have of course been formed by deposit of sediment; to have been created, they must have been overflowed when there were no levees. The water then was above all the highest points on the river. The river barely rises above these points now. How is this, if the extension of levees causes a permanent rise? The enlargement of the river has thus far kept pace with the extension of levees.

With all due deference to Mr. Ellet, we maintain that the river *does* regulate its own channel exactly to correspond with the amount of water it is called upon to convey—that the channel increases in capacity with the increase of water retained in the river—that it diminishes to correspond with the amount drawn off through outlets or crevasses, and that its height is not permanently increased by the extension of levees. That cut-offs have the effect to raise the river below, there is no doubt, by shortening the plane of descent. This effect will not be lost until the former length is regained by the caving of the bends, and is independent of the scouring power of the current. Col. P. O. Hébert, then state engineer, reasoned ably upon this point when the Raccourci cut-off was in contemplation. His remonstrances were of no avail, but subsequent disasters have proved the correctness of his views. The high-water mark of 1828, at Baton Rouge, was three and a half inches above that of 1851, (the highest since,) and above that of 1844. My information on this point was obtained from the Messrs. H. and W. G. Waller, of Baton Rouge, engineers, whose accuracy is unquestionable. Mr. Ellet endeavors to explain how and why the water-marks at some points are higher than they should be, to harmonize with his own views. He suceeeds perfectly when he selects a bend such as the Terrapin Neck, where a strong wind from N. W. may blow up as well as down the river, thus accumulating the water in the bend, and causing it to rise higher, temporarily, than the general plane of descent. But no wind can effect a rise of this kind at Baton Rouge. The rise of 1828 was prior to the Red River and Raccourci cut-offs. The fall across the neck at Raccourci was four and a half feet, giving an increased rise of two and a quarter feet on the lower end of the cut-off, and at Baton Rouge about eighteen inches. The Red River cut-off shortened the river nearly as much as Raccourci—say twenty two inches at the lower end of the cut-off, and in consequence of the increase of distance since the cut-off was made, by caving of bends, and forming of points, only one foot at Baton Rouge. We now have the Red River cut-off, one foot; the Raccourci, one and a half, and three and a half inches excess of '28 rise over '51; in all, two feet nine and a half inches. Thus we see that the '28 rise was in reality two feet nine and a half inches above that of '51. The '44 rise had the Red River cut-off in its favor, say fifteen inches, (then,) but was still several inches below the rise of '28. The '28 rise was therefore about two feet above the great rise of '44. We now see that, notwithstanding there were no levees above Red River and many vacancies below, still, *with all these outlets*, the river rose two feet higher than in '44, and near three feet higher than in '51. Why is this? We answer: the river is larger than it was in '28—both wider and deeper—it can accommodate and carry off more water now than formerly. Before levees were made, a channel, suitable to a medium stage of water, was sufficient; the water needed not a larger channel; the surplus water escaped over the river banks, and inundated the back lands.

Mr. Ellet tells us, (page 67,) that, "to excavate a channel through a soil of given texture, and to keep the same channel open when so excavated, are two distinct things, implying very different applications of force." He says further: "The Atchafalaya and the Plaquemine have probably been open for ages, and yet, unaided by art, they have been found unequal to the task of increasing the depths of their channels, or enlarging their respective water-ways. On the contrary, the Atchafalaya [in his opinion] seems to have been contracting its original width for a great many years." Mr. Ellet intimates that, whereas the Atchafalaya and Plaquemine have not enlarged *their* channels, so would not the Mississippi. The writer thinks he has proved to the minds of every unprejudiced person, that the river has increased in capacity, so far, with the extension of levees. Why will not the increase of capacity continue with the further extension of levees? Mr. Ellet has erred in his conclusions with regard to the Plaquemine and Atchafalaya. Only forty years ago, the bayou Plaquemine was barely twenty-five feet wide, and from fifteen to twenty feet deep. It was common to cross it on foot logs then, and the cane and brush on either bank interlocked over the water.

Mr. Lloyd Wilcoxson, a planter upon bayou Vermillion, and a member of the convention which framed our present state constitution—a gentleman well known in Attakapas—informs us that thirty-five years ago he passed down through the bayou Plaquemine in a flat-boat but twelve feet wide; he says that at many places in the bayou he could step from the gunwale of his boat upon the bank of the bayou on either side. He assures me that there was not more than three feet to spare between the sides of his boat and the banks on either side, and that he was obliged to keep the cane and brush, which formed a complete arch overhead, from striking him in the face, by constantly putting them aside with his hands.

It is well known to the old settlers, residing upon the banks of the Plaquemine, that this bayou, forty years ago, was but from twenty to twenty-five feet wide. The stumps in the bed of the Plaquemine have been cut down three different times as low as the bottom of the bayou would permit. Once, they were cut about seven feet. They need cutting again at the present time. Art has done nothing for the channel of the Plaquemine but cut these stumps. The bottom of the Plaquemine is of the stiffest kind of clay, and filled with cypress stumps, but nevertheless it has increased in depth to thirty and forty feet, and in width from 25 to 200 and 250 feet, and is increasing rapidly every year. The cypress stumps over the entire bed of the Plaquemine, as well as the appearance of the country back, which is low—the streams having low banks—show conclusively that this bayou, instead of having been "open for ages," or an original *pass*, as generally supposed, is of comparatively *recent* formation, and in reality but the development of one of the lateral drains from the river. Cypress trees never could have grown over the bottom of an original pass of the Mississippi. The bottom of the Plaquemine is *paved* with cypress stumps. The Plaquemine falls into a flat, swampy country, within a few miles. The valley of the Atchafalaya approaches nearer to the Mississippi at this point than at any other. The bayou Lafourche is evidently an original pass. There are no cypress stumps in its channel; its *delta* comprises the bayous Terrebonne, Petit Caillou, Grand Caillou, Black Chickahoula, &c. Having existed for ages, it has *filled* its swamps, and extended itself to the Gulf. Not so the Plaquemine.

With regard to the Atchafalaya, the facts are these: before the *old raft*, which was several miles long, very compact, and almost a perfect dam, was removed, and before the Red River cut-off was made, the Atchafalaya undoubtedly did diminish in size, as was very natural; the current being almost entirely checked by the raft, and the water, coming directly from the Mississippi, being loaded with sedimentary matter. The loss of current occasioned a deposit of sediment, and bars were formed above the raft. Does this imply a want of scouring power in a current? We do not expect the water to scour out rafts! Since the raft has been removed, notwithstanding the Atchafalaya has been cut off from the Mississippi, it is well known that it has been uniformly and steadily increasing in width and depth.

Mr. Ellet has made of the Raccourci cut-off one of his strongest arguments against the scouring power of the river. He says: "If the cut-off, after having been exposed to the action of the water for three years, is still one-third less than the river above and below, how can we expect the river to increase its channel with the extension of levees?" This seems plausible, and might be considered an unanswerable argument, by those who are unacquainted with the cut-off and vicinity; but the cut-off is in reality an argument *against* Mr. Ellet. The cut-off is one third less than the balance of the river in capacity, for the reason that *one third less water* passes through it, at a high stage, than through the river above and below. The cut-off is essentially a low water channel—there are no *bars* in it—the banks are bluff on both sides, and the depth very uniform.

When the river rises to within about ten feet of the top of its banks, the water *above* the cut-off escapes over the sand bar into the old Raccourci bend, and during high water, not only around the old bend, and over the Tunica bend below, but over both sides of the cut-off; on the west over Raccourci Island, into Lake Darby, &c. Fully one-third of the high water is thus diverted; and, because the water is spread over a region several miles wide—because it has *outlets*, and is not confined to the channel—the cut-off does not enlarge. Does this imply a want of scouring power? Were the upper end of the old bend, and each side of the cut-off leveed, and all the water confined to the channel of the cut-off, we should soon find that it had power sufficient to scour out a channel equal to that above and below.

Mr. Ellet also instances the Bonnet Carré crevasse, to show the want of scouring power. He says: "Although the current was long-continued and very powerful, the cane ridges next the river still remained after the river had subsided." This is true, but not all. Mr. E. omitted to state that *three channels were* excavated for a short distance into the fields; and further, he says nothing of the caving in of the excavation next the river, as the water subsided. The soil of this locality, as well as that without all the *bends* on the river, is of a very tenacious and unyielding nature, and becomes, when exposed to the action of water, almost of the consistence of putty. In all crevasses, a channel of greater or less depth is excavated next the river, when the water is concentrated; but as soon as the water has passed the break or opening in the levee, its power is lost, for the reason, that it has space to spread and become shallow. This crevasse was very wide—about three-fourths of a mile; and, compared with its width, its depth was very little—but five feet. The water not being concentrated, it is not at all strange, that a large channel was not excavated.

Mr. Ellet's reasonings and examples of the *want* of scouring power, are not ample, because he selects instances where the water *is not* confined or concentrated. We admit, that if the water has liberty to *spread*, and is not *confined* by levees or otherwise, it will fail to excavate.

Mr. Ellet *assumes*, (he does not attempt to prove,) that "a *much* greater power is required to excavate a new, or enlarge an old channel, than is needed to *maintain* such a channel after it is once opened." In a river like the Mississippi, holding in suspension such a vast amount of earthy matter, it certainly is not the case. The moment the current has lost the power to excavate—and *caving* in this sense is but excavation, because the banks would not cave, unless *undermined*—the water will become clear, because the *supply* of earthy matter must be kept up, to keep the waters muddy. Although excavation is constantly going on, even when the supply of water is the same; still the current and quantity of water regulate and maintain a uniformity in the *size* of the channel. It may be deeper, or more shallow, than before, but with an increase of depth on one side of the river, we have the formation of a bar on the opposite side, which makes the channel narrower, and "vice versa." We can, therefore, readily see that a gradual increase in the quantity of water gradually *increases* the *extent* of the caving or excavation; we do not mean to say that the excavation is *renewed*, but it is simply *increased* to make room for an additional supply of water.

Will it not, therefore, be plainly seen, that this scouring power *always exists?* Were we to take away one-half or two-thirds of the water from the Mississippi, the scouring *power* would still *exist;* we should only have *diminished* the power, and allowed the formation of bars in all places, except where that power was applied. If there is no scouring power, how is it that the Mississippi *changes* its channel by excavating its bends? When we say that the scouring power will regulate the capacity of the channel, we are giving no *new* power to the river; not giving it what it had not before the construction of levees. We only say that the scouring power will be *increased* or *diminished* with the *increase* and *diminution* of the quantity of water. Is there any thing contrary to the laws of nature in this? The scouring *power* still exists at the lowest stage of the Mississippi, otherwise, how could the excavation continue in the bends, or the water remain discolored and muddy? It is a law of nature, that the size of the channel is regulated directly by the quantity of water it is forced to convey, and the very instant the scouring power or current (they are the same) which excavates and holds up, or suspends its earthy matter is diminished, by outlets or crevasses, that instant the earthy matter is dropped, forms bars, and contracts the channel. Can it possibly be otherwise?

Mr. Ellet says: "We can make outlets until we *approach* the *unknown* limit which represents the *difference* between the volume needed to create and that needed to maintain the channel." He means that we can draw off by outlets a quantity of water *equal* to the *difference* between these powers, before the river channel will begin to diminish. There is no difference, no latitude *between* these powers. One begins where the other ends, and ends where the other begins. Mr. Ellet's own data show that the channel below is diminished by outlets. He gives the cross section of the river *above* the Bonnet Carré Crevasse, at 198,734 square feet, and immediately *below*, at 152,443, showing a diminution of 46,291 square feet. He estimated the cross section of the crevasse, at 43,500 square feet. We see here that the diminution of the channel immediately below (and this effect occurred after the crevasse was formed) corresponds very nearly with the cross section of the crevasse. The same result was found at the Sauve crevasse, and will be found at every other. Were these crevasses permanent outlets, the channel would be permanently reduced through all the distance below. Of what use, then, are outlets? We might go on making them until we had submerged all the alluvial lands in our state, and still but have restored the old order of things. The river would rise as high as now. Those *unfortunates* who *owned* lands in the interior, would be obliged to build and retreat to *mounds* during high water, as did the ancient inhabitants of the soil. We will give one more instance of decrease of channel consequent upon a decrease of water. Berwick's Bay and the lower Atchafalaya convey to the gulf all the water escaping from the Mississippi above Lafourche on the west. Formerly the water rose above all the lands on the Teche. Grand Lake *then* was several feet higher than it was during the crevasses of 1849 and 1851, when part of the Teche, and a great part of several parishes, was overflowed. Then the scouring was much greater than now, even during the crevasses referred to above. The extension of levees on the Mississippi caused a decreased amount of water in Berwick's Bay. We accordingly find a corresponding decrease in the capacity of the channel. The hard bottom, indicating the old channel, is covered many feet deep by a deposit of soft mud, through which the sounding lead sinks.* This mud is from the swamps, and from the bottom of Grand Lake. The Mississippi water deposits most of its sediment before it reaches Berwick Bay.

If a *much* greater power is required to excavate than maintain a channel—and, as we have shown, the Mississippi is now just able to maintain its present channel—how high was the river when it *excavated* its present channel?

An outlet is recommended into Lake Borgne. We admit that an outlet could be made here, with less injury to the planting interests, perhaps, than at any other point; but as it is all-important that an increase, instead of a diminution of the depth of water on the bars at the mouth of the river should be obtained, the writer contends that outlets are not only useless, but positively injurious, inasmuch as they would diminish the amount of water, and consequently the depth on the bars. This depth on the bars at the mouths of the passes, is a subject of vast importance to New-Orleans; her vitality depends upon it, and her interests should not be jeopardized without due deliberation. Every foot of increase in depth on said bars is worth millions to New-Orleans; and every diminution a corresponding loss. It has been said that on account of there being a greater depth on the bars at low, than at high water, the loss by outlets or crevasses would have no effect. This reasoning is, however, fallacious. The depth on the bars at high-water, the aggregate of the cross-sections of all the passes, bears an exact relation to the body of water, current, and quantity of sedimentary matter maintained at a high stage of the river. At a low stage there is scarcely any fall in the river from New-Orleans to the gulf; and, indeed, it not unfrequently happens that the gulf during high tides, consequent upon south or south-easterly winds, is higher than the river-surface at New-Orleans. Vessels *have* been *floated* up stream from the third to the second municipality wharves. There being very little sediment carried to the Balize, in consequence of the sluggish current, little or no addition is made to the bars at low water, and even this is of nearly pure clay; the sand being heavier, is deposited above. The constant passage, of steamers, ships, and other vessels, agitates the sand and mud forming the bars; and the constant influx and reflux of the tides at low-water, cause this mud and sand to float off into deep water outside. The concentration of the water at a low stage excavates a narrower but deeper channel than we have at high-water. The *average* depth will be found the greatest at high water. The sand is deposited upon the bars at high-water, and carried off at low-water. The clay is deposited at low-water as well as high, and accordingly we find the bars composed of clay, more or less indurated. It is, therefore, easily seen *why* we have deeper water on the bars at a low, than at a high stage of the river.

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* From soundings and measurements by Prof. C. G. Forshey.

Should the depth on the bars be reduced one-third by outlets, at high-water, the low-water depth might still be greater than the high, and yet one-third less than the present low-water depth. Again, if it were possible to concentrate the water into two passes, we should gain a depth through the bars of these two, of from 20 to 30 feet.*

The low-water depth even in this case might be greater than the high, and still the truth of our position be unshaken, that outlets will lessen, and levees increase the depth of water in the passes.

There is yet one other argument to rebut. It is said that Iberville found a depth of 17 feet on the bar at the mouth of the Mississippi. Since, we have had levees extended to the state line, and more water discharged by the river. Why is there not a geater depth consequent upon this? Mr. Ellet informs us, that the mouth of the river advances into the gulf, at the rate of one mile in twenty years. Since Iberville's time, then, the embouchure has advanced seven and a half miles. This would make a vast difference in the aggregate width of the passes. At that time the water was more concentrated than now; it follows that a less amount of water would give as great a depth as now.

Mr. Ellet *assumes* that the bars are not formed by deposit from the river, but are washed up from the gulf by a "refluent under current, which is set in motion by the outpouring floods of the Mississippi." He says there is a current of salt water running *into* the river, underneath the fresh water, which is going out, and that this current washes up the mud and sand, and forms the bars. But the truth of the matter simply is—that *there is no* such current. Many hundred trials of the currents, in all the passes, at all depths, and at all times of tides, were made by Prof. Forshey, and not a single instance of any such current, nor any current but an outward one, was found.

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* The writer devised a plan for accomplishing this, some three years since, by the artificial formation of rafts in the smaller passes—said rafts to cause a deposit, destruction of current, and consequent filling up of the passes selected. This plan was submitted to Maj. Barnard, U. S. Corps of Engineers, and was approved by him.

Although Mr. Ellet advises a system of outlets in strong terms, he is rather at fault when he proceeds to point out *where* to make them. He advises the outlet into Lake Borgne, but tacitly admits, that while this will do no good above, or at most, but for a short distance, he can recommend no other *new* outlet. He advises the enlargement of the Plaquemine to four times its present capacity, but does so with hesitation, because he cannot but be aware that it is a question of *expediency*, at best, whether we shall sacrifice the richest part of Attakapas, to the river interest, or not. In other words: we are to regulate the *size* of this outlet, or the *extent* of the enlargement, by the *size* of our purse, and *extent* of the damages. The writer admits that the coast planters will be benefited by outlets in but one way. Outlets would lessen the caving of the banks, hasten the formation of battures, and diminish the cost of maintaining levees, by lengthening the periods of their renewal. The extension of levees would, and will, have the contrary effect. Thus far it is the interest of the Mississippi *planter* to advocate outlets. It will be a war of interests. New-Orleans and Attakapas *versus* the Mississippi Coast. A compromise *may* be effected, and outlets to a very limited extent, in connection with strong levees on the river, be the result.

Mr. Ellet says, (p. 74,) that there can "be no *reasonable objection* offered to increasing the draught through the Plaquemine until this bayou discharges into Grand Lake a column equal to that which is ordinarily received by that basin from the crevasses in the levees;" or again, "to increase the Plaquemine until it can be regarded as a *reliable substitute* for those *disastrous* crevasses, by which the channel is now annually relieved." Now, as a portion of the Lafourche, Black, and Teche, the whole of Grand River, Belle River, Sorrel, Pigeon, Chene, Grand Bayou, &c., &c.; in short, a large portion of the parishes of Iberville, Assumption, Terrebonne, St. Mary, St. Martin, and West Baton Rouge, were overflowed by those disastrous crevasses, we are told that no *reasonable objection* can be made why we should not permanently overflow the same extent of country, by the enlargement of the Plaquemine. What say you, people of Attakapas? Can you make no *reasonable* objection why your plantations should not be converted into swamps, or annually overflowed? In addition to the Plaquemine, which is to be enlarged until it can discharge upon you a body of water equal to *all* the crevasses, we must have the Atchafalaya enlarged to its utmost capacity, indeed, to *three times* its present size. Were these counsels followed, there would not be an acre of dry land in all Attakapas.

But a thin stratum of clay, from three to four feet thick, divides the bottom of the Plaquemine from the quicksand beneath. Although we believe the apprehension (of some) that the Mississippi will abandon its channel, and take this route to the gulf, to be absurd; still were the Plaquemine widened to six or eight hundred feet, and this thin stratum of clay removed, (it soon would be by such a current,) this outlet—with a fall ten times as great as the Mississippi, and a quicksand bottom to work upon,—would be rather more difficult to manage and regulate than Mr. Ellet appears to imagine.

Mr. Ellet says we cannot be permanently protected by levees; he advises outlets. The outlets, if made, would involve a loss of many millions worth of property, to do any good at all to the river. We could not possibly levee in the outlets—this is perfectly impracticable, as any person acquainted with the country will admit, and Mr. E. does not deny. The development of the outlets, as recommended, would involve the expenditure of millions. The same amount, or perhaps less, would construct reservoirs sufficient to keep back the water. and preserve us from overflow. We, of course, must choose the reservoirs, in preference to converting one half our state into swamp. If we *were* certain to be overflowed, these reservoirs might be our salvation, *provided* suitable sights could be found for them.

The writer, as well as other engineers in this state, dissent entirely from Mr. Ellet, as to the effect of the extension of levees by the states above. Let any one inspect the levees on the river between New-Orleans and the mouth of Red River, as they pass up in a steamer, in the day-time, and they will see that the highest water does not rise more than from ten inches to two feet above the lands *behind* the levees, on all the points, or where there has been no caving. The levees in the caving bends are high, because all the highest land has caved in to the river, and the land everywhere slopes back, or descends *from* the river. If the extension of levees to the line of Arkansas has not had the effect to raise the water higher above these points than before any levees were constructed—as is the fact—why will a further extension of levees raise the river many feet?

Mr. Ellet's report, notwithstanding these objections, is valuable, and cannot be too much commended. It has added to our stock of knowledge, and should be generally circulated and read. Let all read, and let us have the benefit of the experience of others. If it have no other effect than to rouse the people of Louisiana to some concert of action with regard to levees, it will have done a great good. In our opinion, outlets never will be adopted, They are contrary to the spirit of the age; to that spirit of improvement which would reclaim and cultivate, that would convert every swamp and fen into abodes of wealth, into cultivated fields. Had the alluvial lands of the interior never been brought into cultivation, outlets might have been adopted, but not now. The water cannot be confined after leaving the river—millions worth of property would inevitably be destroyed—and the state is not prepared to pay *damages*.

We regret that the space allowed to an article for a periodical, will not permit us to enter into a detailed discussion of the many valuable facts —the many merits of Mr. Ellet's report; but the report is before us, and all can read and judge for themselves.

After much study and examination, we are convinced that the extension of levees and progress of cultivation, *do not* have the effect to raise the river to any appreciable extent; that the river *does* increase in capacity in direct proportion to the quantity of water it is called upon to convey; and that the plane of descent will not be elevated, nor changed, except by cut-offs, and by the gradual extension of the delta into the gulf.

A *system* of leveeing should be adopted. The state should be divided into five or more districts, with natural boundaries; each district to be in charge of an experienced and faithful engineer, whose duty it should be to survey for, and mark out where and how each levee should be built. The levees should be made higher, with a wider base, and a greater width at top, than now. When danger of caving is imminent, they should be put farther back, and *in time*, regardless of private or individual interest and remonstrance. A general tax should be levied upon all real estate in each district, to *assist* in the construction of new levees. Let the people of the district pay a part, and the planter the balance. Let the engineer, in conjunction with an advisory board elected in each district, decide when and how far a levee shall be put back from the river bank in a caving bend, so that the interests of the district, or a community, shall be protected, and let their judgment be final. Some *efficient* means—there are none at present—should be adopted, to prevent the pirating of timber upon the public lands. By removing the motive, we may put a stop to this cause of crevasses.

It *may* be practicable to close two or more of the smaller passes of the Mississippi. Were it accomplished, a consequent gain in depth upon the bars of the others, seems inevitable; and, as the embouchure advances but one mile in twenty years, many years must elapse before the effect would be lost. The cross section of the discharge must be the same at a like stage of water. Subtract from the width, and we must gain in depth; and vice versa. Dredging can be but little depended upon—it is at war with the natural causes which produce the bars. We must, if possible, make the river do its own dredging. An increased depth of water upon the bars would remove the only objection to the establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans. It would permit the passage of those clipper-built ships which are destined to usurp the carrying trade of the world. New-Orleans never can become what she ought, the rival of New-York, unless she imports, and supplies the Mississippi Valley. She cannot import except in clipper ships, and they require more water upon the bar than we now have. Therefore a system of outlets, having the effect to diminish the depth, would result in great injury to New-Orleans, and through her, to the state.

We regret that the time occupied by Mr. Ellet, in making examinations within our state, was so limited; and feel well assured, from the liberal and professional manner in which he has treated the subject, that had he have had a more ample array of facts touching many points, in connection with, and ultimately allied to the whole, some of his deductions and conclusions would have been different. Instrumental examinations are much needed in various portions of the state, before we can give the fullest force to conclusions, and consequent suggestions as to healing and permanent remedies. The writer sincerely hopes that the theme is one which has so enlisted the professional spirit of Mr. Ellet, that he may be induced to pursue it with the energy set forth in his report, assuring him at the same time, that no sentiment contained in this article is intended in any spirit save that of courtesy, commensurate with the esteem engendered by the perusal of Mr. Ellet's valuable report, and a desire to arrive at the truth.

G. W. R. BAYLEY,
Civil Engineer.

ART. VI.—PRODUCTION AND MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR.

COMPOSITION OF SOILS, AND THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

BY analysis, we find that soils formed by the decomposition of granite, comprise various constituents highly desirable in a sugar-cane soil; which may be placed as follows, viz: silica, alumina, potash, lime, soda, magnesia, peroxide of iron, protoxide of iron, protoxide of manganese, and fluoric acid. These, with other mineral substances, and an accumulation of vegetable matter in a state of decomposition, serve to constitute a soil of considerable fertility. The disintegrated crystals are constantly, though gradually, decomposing; but it often happens that planters have a prejudice against such land, because they see a large number of these crystals in the soil, and forthwith pronounceit sandy and unsuitable. Many a fine tract of land have I seen lying uncultivated, from no other cause than this unfounded prejudice. A French gentleman in the Straits, showing me his estate, took me to some fields near his house, which he said were the worst of all, and to be abandoned. Not content with this, he stated the canes then growing to be only seven months old, whereas they were eleven; being positively so anxious for the credit of his estate, that he was induced to practice deception, rather than have me form an unfavorable opinion of his property. However, time passed on, and these abused canes were cut and manufactured, (being the third crop from that land,) when the quantity and excellent quality of the sugar yielded were so satisfactory, that the idea of abandoning the cultivation of these fields could no longer be entertained; therefore, instead of doing so, the Chinaman (cultivating under contract) slightly manured and replanted them.* It was then observed that the labor in cleaning, trashing, banking, cutting, and carrying the canes, and manufacturing and curing the produce, was considerably less; whilst the sugar resulting was more, and of far better quality, than that of any other portion of the estate. With all the vivacity of his countrymen, this gentleman thereon became enthusiastic in his praises of this description of soil, (decomposed granite,) and would fain have had all the lands of his estate of the same quality.

Granite formation is very general in the Straits Settlements, and is always found to afford a really good and desirable soil for sugar-cane culture; being always mingled with a large quantity of decayed vegetable matter, furnished by the luxuriant vegetation of ages. In the low, swampy lands of Province Wellesley and Malacca, we generally find the debris of granite abounding in the soil, in conjunction with alluvial deposit and vegetable matter; together, forming the richest description of land to be there obtained.

In some parts, however, the soil is very variable indeed; in consequence of the capricious manner in which the beds of decomposed granite occur. Along the Malacca River, this is exhibited to a degree seldom seen elsewhere: a surface-soil of decaying vegetable matter (varying in thickness from one inch to twelve inches) resting on a strata of grayish plastic clay, below which the subsoil appears entirely composed of decomposed feldspar of a very pure white; the grayish plastic clay abounding in streaks of a red and yellow color, and containing a large quantity of disintegrated crystals, as yet undecomposed. This description of land is found in patches here and there, whilst immediately contiguous to it the soil assumes other totally different characters.

Some peculiar descriptions of granite rock resist the action of the elements in a remarkable degree,—as is shown in the case of two obelisks at Rome, which have been erected upwards of three thousand years. Others again, especially when feldspar predominates, quickly crumble away and are destroyed.

On the whole, then, we cannot view the granite formation, as other than favorable to the composition of a good soil, in which argillaceous earth abounds; although its comparative value must, in a great measure, depend on the vegetable and other substances with which it is mixed.

Many descriptions of porphyry and trap rocks occur in the West India islands, India, and the Straits Settlements. I will not, however, attempt to describe them, but confine myself to a brief mention of limestone; red, brown, and yellow clay ironstone; and magnetic and iron pyrites.

In Jamaica, limestone rocks abound, especially in the northern parts; where they are commonly called "honey-combed rocks," from their being worn into various fantastic shapes by the action of the weather. Throughout India, also, they are found very abundantly; where they do not occur in one form, they do in another. Thus in many places the natives dig into the soil, or in the beds of rivers, for a description of concretionary limestone, which is constantly forming, and which they term *kunker*. This kunker is naturally very variable in its constituents; from the indiscriminate manner in which lime, from its strong affinity for acids, enters into combination with the first it may chance to meet.

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* In regard to the importance of *seed cane*, of which much is often said, Mr. Wray remarks:

"For my own part, I see no reason to be dissatisfied with the canes at present cultivated: nor do I think canes produced from seed would possess any advantage over those obtained from cuttings; so that I do not consider the failure of our attempts to discover cane seed, other than a trivial disappointment, of no consequence whatever."

At a depth of from eighteen to twenty feet in the ground, (on the banks of rivers in India,) I have often found considerable formations—being lime in combination with silica—of a dirty gray color; rough, irregular, excessively hard, and giving out abundance of sparks on being struck with a common hammer. Perhaps this ranks rather as a bi-silicate of lime than as a limestone. Limestone consists of lime in combination with carbonic acid and small portions of foreign matter.

As a formation, I know from experience, that it exercises a most beneficial influence on the growth of the sugar-cane plant, and the saccharine character of its juice. I well remember a small mountain estate, in the parish of Trelawney, Jamaica, which was so rocky, that in many of the fields planting could only be accomplished by hand, (not hoe,) as small indication of soil could be seen: yet the roots of the canes insinuated themselves betwixt the stones and rocks, and discovered abundant sources of nutriment of the rarest quality, as the sugar produced by those canes evidenced. I can safely say, that the juice was the cleanest and best I have seen in any part of the world; and the sugar (made in common open pans) was superior in every respect to any Muscovado I ever saw: that made by the vacuum pan not excepted. Surely this extreme excellence must have been occasioned by this peculiar formation (limestone:) and no doubt whatever can exist, that the roots extracted from it this supply of genial nourishment, which exhibited itself so strikingly in the abundance of saccharine matter deposited in the cells of the plant.

Of iron-stone, we find in the Straits Settlements many varieties; but in Malacca and Singapore the following are most common:—*red hematite*—of a brownish-red color, in masses, stalactites, and kidney-form balls; powder red, and structure fibrous—is composed of peroxide of iron, columbic acid, alumina, and water.*

Red clay iron-stone and *red silicious iron-stone* are, also, of the same class; and consist of red oxide of iron, more or less mixed with foreign matter.

Brown clay iron-stone and *yellow clay iron-stone* are of the species termed *hydrous peroxide of iron*; color, various shades of brown: as yellowish-brown, hair-brown, clove-brown, and blackish-brown, streak yellowish-brown. They are found to contain peroxide of iron and water, with very small portions of sesquioxide of manganese and silica: sometimes, also, traces of alumina.

Magnetic pyrites (sulphuret of iron) and *iron or cubic pyrites* (bisulphuret of iron) are very common indeed in the West India islands and Malacca: the former, which is of a color intermediate between bronze-yellow and copper-red, is composed of one atom sulphur, and one atom iron; the latter is of a characteristic bronze-yellow color, streak brownish-black, and contains of sulphur two atoms, iron one atom.† These pyrites are very abundant on some lands, and act very prejudicially on vegetation when the lands are not drained properly; as by exposure to the air this substance becomes converted, by the prolonged action of oxygen, into sulphate of iron and sulphuric acid, which remain in solution in the stagnant water that covers the land, rendering it very sour or acid. In seasons of dry weather, evaporation goes on rapidly, and this sour or acid water, percolating through the thick strata of decaying vegetable matter, often forming the surface soil, yields to the vegetable matter its oxygen, and thus again resumes its character as iron pyrites. With every lodgment of water and subsequent absorption these transformations are continually affected, so long as the land remains undrained; but a proper system of drainage altogether arrests these actions, and rescues the crops from the very serious injury sustained thereby.

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* Thompson.

† See Dr. Thompson's work on "Mineralogy, Geology, and Mineral Analysis."

In the Straits of Malacca, land so circumstanced is termed by the Malays *masam* (acid or sour); and they are often sadly perplexed and prejudiced by the partial or total failure of their rice crops, from this cause. But with the Chinese, in the same locality, no inconvenience of the kind is felt, when they pursue their usual system of cultivation. This fact induces a belief that the Chinese choose a sweeter and more fertile description of soil; whereas, in nine cases out of ten, no difference in this respect really exists. For the information of the sugar planter and others in the Straits, I will explain how this change is brought about by the Chinese mode of operation. When a Chinaman cultivates land, he generally acts on the principle that it is more profitable to cultivate one acre thoroughly, than two in an imperfect and partial manner; hence we are in the habit of terming their system "garden cultivation," which indeed it is: and a very wise and admirable system it must be allowed to be, which obtains from one acre of land as much as two or three acres commonly yield.

On this principle, therefore, the Chinaman proceeds to choose a patch of land of manageable size, the jungle of which he cuts, allows to dry, and then burns; next he sets to work on the roots and stumps of all trees and bushes remaining in the ground: these he carefully digs out, piles up in heaps, and covers over with earth. The intense heat of a tropical sun quickly dries the heaps sufficiently; when the Chinaman sets them on fire, and attends constantly whilst they are burning, that every portion may be consumed. The ashes and burnt earth resulting are carefully scattered over the land; which is then dug (by hoe) and thoroughly turned up. He next digs a trench, and throws up a bank around the land he has cleared, to drain it; and at the same time to keep out all water from the adjacent lands. Finally, he gives it a second *chankolmg*, (hoe-digging), and plants out his sugar-canes, or whatever else he may please. Thus the first shower of rain saturates the alkalies contained in the ashes, (so abundantly spread on the surface of the land,) and in solution conveys them to the soil; in which they speedily enter into combination with sulphuric and other acids (existing as before noticed,) and form insoluble compounds. Hence we never hear a Chinaman complaining of acidity in land so settled by him. There certainly are lazy Chinese as well as lazy Englishmen, who are sufficiently careless to neglect such precautionary measures; but these form exceptions to the general rule; and they suffer, in common with the Malays, disappointment and frequent loss, from the failure of their crops.

Were the mischief arising from these false notions confined to the poor and ignorant Malays, I should not have been so diffuse in my remarks on this subject; but as Europeans (planters and others) are sometimes grievously misled by such assertions of the Malays, I cannot too strongly urge on them the absurdity of trusting to such authority. In the West Indies, proper drainage (and the application of a little lime, if it can be afforded,) will entirely relieve the planter from the ill effects of iron-pyrites on their crops.

It often occurs in the Straits Settlements, Demerara, Louisiana, and other places, that lands are strongly impregnated with saline matter; which certainly causes the cane to grow most luxuriantly, but affects the juice (and consequently the sugar made from it) very prejudicially. In Province Wellesley, I have known sugar that was quite salt produced the first year from such land; and in the Sunderbunds* it was so very salt, that the sugar estates had to be abandoned. In Demerara, also, infinite trouble and loss result from the same cause. Dr. Ure writes:

"The following analysis of cane juice, performed by a French chemist, was given me by Mr. Forstall, of New-Orleans.

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* Low land at the mouths of the Ganges, in the Bay of Bengal.

"In ten English gallons, of 231 cubic inches each, of juice, marking 8½° Baumé, there are 5¾ ounces, English, of salts, which consist of—

Sulphate of potash	17·840 grammes	= 15·44 grains each.
Phosphate of potash	16·028 "	"
Chlorure of potassium	8·355 "	"
Acetate of potash	63·750 "	"
Acetate of lime	36·010 "	"
Gelatinous silica	15·270 "	"
	157·253	= 5·57 ounces avoirdupois.

"To the large proportion of deliquescent saline matter—of which one-half, he says, remains in the sugar—the analyst very properly ascribes the deliquescence and deterioration of the sugar, when kept for some time, or transported. It was probably the juice of the cane grown in the rich alluvial soil of Louisiana, which is more abundant in saline matter than the average soil of our West India islands. The Demarara cane juice has, perhaps, the above saline constitution; since it suffers much loss of weight by drainage in the home voyage."

Where salt is present in land—as from the overflowing of the high spring-tides—nothing can be done but making good "bunds" to keep out the salt water, and establishing a good system of drainage. By these means, the soil being well turned up, the excess of saline matter will in a crop or two be carried off by the rains; which will wash the soil and pass off by drainage: and also, in part, by the quantity contained in the cane or other crop grown on the land. In Province Wellesley, this has been the case; and it will always so happen, unless the soil be of that sandy and porous nature which admits of the salt or saltish water soaking up through it during the continuance of the spring-tides. When once the cane has imbibed these undesirable salts, they become incorporated in its juice; and then all attempts to get rid of them are quite unavailing. The only course to be pursued with such land is—after bunding and draining it properly—to plant Indian corn, Guinea corn, or Guinea grass on it for two or three years, until the saline matters have become in a degree exhausted; when canes may be planted without fear. I have already said that the soil which I know to have produced the best sugar of any I ever saw, was of a limestone formation; and such I have known (from the estate book) to have ratooned for twenty years! Yet, in consequence of its being a mountainous estate, I doubt much whether it could be profitably cultivated in these times. I will not, therefore, dwell on such soil, but pass on to that known as a "brick-mould."

In the West and East Indies this description of soil abounds, and combines so many advantages, that it may truly be stated as the most desirable soil the planter can have.

"Brick-mould" soil is of various colors, and, of course, of variable powers. It is composed of a mixture of sand and clay, in such proportions that air and water can penetrate to some depth with sufficient facility; and it admits of being worked up, by plow or hoe, readily and easily. Vegetable matter and various substances, of course, are mixed up in such soil, and serve to increase its fertility; but a great deal depends on the nature of the clay which is in combination. Clay varies very much in its character, and consequently in its value. It is composed of argillaceous earth (otherwise termed alumina) and silica: very commonly the oxides of iron occur in it also, and impart a red, brownish-red, or blackish-brown color to the mass; from which it is then denominated a ferruginous clay.

No clay soil can of itself be considered fertile, although it may abound in the elements necessary to fertility; inasmuch as clay is of itself so compact and cohesive as to be entirely closed to the action of air internally; but when in admixture with sand and decayed vegetable matter, in due proportion, it is then in the most favorable condition to benefit by such action. Air and water now penetrate with all desirable freedom; and perform their important parts in an unceasing action on the alkaline constituents, and the decaying vegetable bodies contained in the soil.

Let us here pause for an instant, to inquire into the nature of these actions; the arrest of which causes a soil, abounding in the elements essential to fertility, to become at once barren and unproductive. First, then, we find that atmospheric air—which is composed of carbonic acid gas and oxygen gas, with small portions of ammonia and hydrogen—is required to permeate through the soil in order to afford to it its oxygen; which sets free the alkalies contained in the various constituents of the soil, and keeps up in the vegetable matter or humus a putrefactive fermentation, which causes it to evolve carbonic acid; thus constant supplies of nutriment, in the shape of alkalies in solution and carbonic acid, are being supplied to the roots of the plants growing on that soil. But this is not all; for the carbonic acid gas and ammonia contained in the air, are absorbed by the oxides of iron and alumina, and fixed in the soil; to be presented in a soluble form to the roots of the plants, on the occasion of every shower. Secondly, we perceive that water is absolutely necessary, to dissolve the alkalies and earthy salts contained in the soil, and to furnish them in a state of solution to the plants; but, in addition to these and other important offices, the same water affords to the plant its hydrogen, and a portion of its oxygen, to enable it to effect certain chemical transformations.

Air and water, then, must have free access to soils; otherwise they are barren. Where a due quantity of sand is in combination with clay, no obstacle exists to their action; and when the clays are rich, the sand silicious, and vegetable matter abundant, the very best soil is presented to us for all agricultural purposes. Its property of retaining moisture, even in the hottest season, is very remarkable: whilst in heavy rains the water drains off very quickly wherever drains exist; thus, under proper management, an excess of water is never retained in the soil; nor does it ever become destitute of moisture. It is easily broken up by the plow or hoe, forming comparatively light work for the cattle and laborers on an estate; and it always yields a more grateful return for the plowings or "working up" which it receives, than any other description of soil. Brick-mould, therefore, is deservedly esteemed and sought after by all planters; as it not only gives good and abundant returns during the first and second years, but still continues ratooning for many years, advantageously.

I have known many estates to have fine level fields of a rich clay soil, most readily convertible into an excellent brick-mould, by merely carting to it a proper proportion of sand, which also abounded on the properties; yet from neglect, want of information, or other causes, these fields were suffered to remain unimproved in this respect. The lands of a friend of my own, in the Straits Settlements, are at this moment in this condition; and although he is striving to the best of his ability to afford them the requisite quantity of sand, yet his cattle are so weakly, and his means so contracted, that I fear a very considerable time will elapse ere his fields can receive anything like the quantity their nature demands.

I must not omit to mention a particular kind of soil which is found in the parish of Trelawney, Jamaica, and is very valuable for sugar cane cultivation. It is of a chocolate color; varying, however, to a red of different shades of brightness, and has a very glossy or sparkling appearance when first plowed up; when wet, it soils the hands as would paint.

Bryan Edwards, Porter, and others, make mention of this soil; but I have never known any explanation given as to its origin. I have had a great deal to do with it in the West Indies, and have seen abundance of it in Malacca, and am inclined to pronounce it as consisting of that micaceous variety of specular iron ore,* termed sometimes "iron-froth," largely combined with lime, in various forms, and other matters.

In Trelawney, limestone formation prevails generally wherever this chocolate-colored soil is found; and it is but reasonable to suppose that the large quantity of lime dissolved and carried in solution to the soil by the action of the weather, must serve to neutralize any excess of acidity caused by the presence of the mineral oxides. On the whole, it forms a fine friable mould, is easily worked up, is retentive of moisture, and bears excellent crops of canes, which ratoon well, and produce abundance of fair, well-grained sugar.

The oxides of iron and alumina abounding must tend to render such soil fertile, by the large quantity of ammonia which it absorbs from the atmosphere, fixes in the soil, and yields in solution (on the occasion of every fall of rain)† to the roots of plants.

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* Iron-froth (Eisenrahm) is composed of scaly friable parts which soil strongly: color between cherry and brownish-red; very soft.

† See Liebig's Organic Chemistry, p. 89

The climate most congenial to the sugar-cane plant is of a warm and moist character, with moderate intervals of hot dry weather, attempered by the refreshing sea-breezes. It has always been found to grow most luxuriantly on islands, and along the seacoasts of mainland; which leads us to conclude that the saline particles borne on the sea-breeze exercise a powerful effect on the growth of the plant. The influence of the sea-breeze, however, is exerted in many ways: as by imparting moisture to the soil, even in the hottest weather and driest season, by supplying to it the major portion of the saline matter borne inland, and by affording to the leaves of the canes matter for assimilation: add to which, the abundant dew, which it decidedly affects.

Within the tropics, the cane attains its greatest perfection; cold, to any degree, does not suit its growth or development; hence it cannot be cultivated with success in Europe, although it has often been attempted in Spain and other places.

In Louisiana, the frost often sets in before the planters can get in their crops; and so affects the cane that its juice can no longer be induced to crystallize, unless, indeed, the canes can be cut and manufactured before a thaw occurs.

This is occasioned by the fluid contents of the various cells or organs bursting (from excessive cold) their bounds, and becoming intermingled the one with the other: that is, the saccharine with the nitrogenized principles. Now, whilst the frost continues, the lowness of the temperature prevents the possibility of fermentation; but should a thaw intervene, the temperature of the air is raised sufficiently high to permit a viscous fermentation taking place, which altogether prevents the crystallization of the juice, if afterwards concentrated.

If, after a sharp frost, a thaw or period of comparatively warm weather occurs, of sufficient duration, this viscous fermentation is continued until all the sugar contained in the juice is decomposed, and the commingled fluids have resolved themselves into "a viscid mucilaginous matter," possessing neither sweetness nor acidity. This will occur to the juice of the cane yet uncut: but it also happens to expressed juice under other and singular circumstances; one instance of which it may not be out of place to mention, as, in both cases, the substances tending to organize become organized, though by courses very different from each other.

"Vauquelin, on examining the juice of the sugar-cane—which, before being sent from Martinique, had been heated to 212° in closed flasks, in order to absorb the oxygen of the air contained in the flasks—found that it had become changed, during the voyage to France, into a viscid mucilaginous matter, which was with difficulty got out of the flasks. It was insoluble in alcohol. When treated with sulphuric acid, it yielded no grape sugar; and nitric acid changed it into oxalic acid, without any trace of mucic acid. The sugar had become a texture. The substance tending to organize had become organized."*

In the upper districts of India, frost often does great injury to the cane crops; but the manner in which the mischief is effected, is not at all understood by either natives or Europeans. The cane is in every respect a tropical plant, and requires that strong light and heat which are to be found continually in a tropical climate alone.

The influence of *seasons* is a very important subject, to which I must beg leave particularly to direct the attention of the planter. In the first place, I must divide the subject into two parts, in order to treat of the great continent of India separately; as its seasons are entirely different from those of the West India Islands, Mauritius, and the Straits Settlements.

The seasons of the West Indies, Mauritius, Ceylon, and the settlements in the Straits of Malacca, are very similar; and indeed the climate and seasons may both be said to be exceedingly alike, as far as regards average heat, equable temperature, duration of rains, &c.: but there are variations arising from difference in local position, which will be particularly stated under their own proper heads.

In the colonies just named, there cannot be said to be any cold season; but they all have distinct periods of hot, dry, and rainy weather more or less marked, and slightly varying in the months during which each occur. In the West Indies these periods are well defined and pretty regular, and the planters commonly choose the spring and the fall as the most eligible times for planting out their fields in canes; but on some estates canes are planted and manufactured all the year round.

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* See Raspail's Organic Chemistry, p. 329.

I may here remark, that I am well aware that, in fifteen cases out of twenty, a managing planter of a West Indian estate is not allowed the free exercise of his own judgment, but is forced to act according to the directions he receives from the agent or planting attorney (as he is termed) of the estate. From this cause, it is not always just to impute blame to the resident manager (or overseer, as he is termed, in Jamaica) for the errors of system, and ill success of the estate nominally under his management: nor can we altogether wonder that a managing planter brooks such a state of dependence, and hesitates, by a show of independence, to risk his livelihood, (perhaps that of his family also,) and at the same time make an enemy for life of the planting attorney: which would very often result. That such a state of things should exist is much to be deplored; as it is evident, that numerous evils must arise from such a denial of confidence on the part of the planting agent, and feeling of insecurity on that of the resident manager. These, however, are matters more properly belonging to another part of my subject; and I only introduce the mention of them here, that I may be spared the ungracious task of noticing the numerous errors committed on West Indian estates, in regard to seasons.

One of the greatest causes of mischief and injury on sugar estates, is the use of dried cane-trash or magass for fuel, instead of wood or coal. To keep up a supply of this most expensive fuel, what sacrifices are not made!—what delays, what trouble and anxiety does it not occasion! and how unsatisfactorily, or rather how ruinously, does it not act, in regard to the interests and well-being of an estate. It does, indeed, disarrange the whole system of plantership, and is of itself sufficient to disconcert plans which, in other respects, have been well conceived, and ably carried out. Need I here explain how this happens, and how it affects the particular subject now under notice? I think not. A more suitable place for such an explanation will shortly present itself. I will therefore merely remark, that provided with an abundant and sure supply of good fuel, such as coal or wood, the planter would avail himself to the utmost of the advantages attendant on choice of time and season, for planting canes and manufacturing his produce. No cloudy weather or drizzling rain would then deter him from cutting canes; on the contrary, every reason would urge him to do so: he would strain every nerve to get his ripe canes cut and manufactured before heavy rains came on to render their juice watery, and at the same time procure tops to plant out during such seasonable weather for planting.

Sunshine or cloudy, fair or showery, it matters not. Certain fields of fine canes require cutting: they are cut; other fields require planting, and the weather is favorable: they are planted. No anxiety can be entertained,—no risk is run; for a bountiful supply of coal (or wood) is on hand, which ensures a certain and rapid manufacture of the juice. Without such fuel, the proper seasons for planting and manufacture can only be partially availed of.

In the West Indies and the Straits Settlements, the sugar-cane always shows a great desire to "arrow" or flower during the months of January, February, and March; so much so, that I have frequently seen ratoons of only seven months old arrowing freely. From December to July is decidedly the best season of the year for manufacturing; and from August to end of November may be called the rainy months, or the months during which rain may usually be expected: but in the Straits the seasons are sometimes very capricious.

As the cane approaches maturity, two or three months of hot and moderately dry weather bring it to its highest degree of sweetness, and fits it to yield an abundant return of fine quality sugar: but a slight shower at long intervals is far from being injurious to the juice; on the contrary, it serves to maintain the vigor of the plant, without weakening its juices. Such is the weather a planter always rejoices in "for working off" his crop.

The seasons in India may be divided into the hot, cold, and rainy; each in extreme, as far as the cane is concerned, and consequently as trying to the plant as can well be imagined.

I have planted fields of native cane during the month of December, (when in Upper India it is very cold,) and the plants did not appear above the ground until the weather became warm, in the middle of February! Finding no appearance of vegetation for so long a period, I was thinking of replanting the land, but was told by a neighbor that if I waited until the warm weather set in, I should see the canes I had already planted spring up in a very satisfactory manner; as it was well known that native cane would not vegetate when planted during the cold season. This I have always found to be the case. The Otaheite and Chinese canes are not so affected, although their growth is much impeded. Canes planted during the early part of October attain a tolerable growth by December, when the cold checks them completely, until the warmth of February and a light shower infuse new life into them, and bring forth numerous vigorous shoots. The "hot winds" usually set in in the early part of April,* and continue until the middle of June, scorching and burning up the plants, which are only saved by the rains that then commence. The rapidity of their growth is then truly wonderful: in four months only, fine fields of tall and luxuriant canes have sprung up, where previously all was dry and parched! The change is indeed astonishing.

If it be in a part of the country where frost does not occur, it will sometimes be advantageous to allow the canes to continue in the ground until February; when their juice will be in a richer state than it can be immediately after the rains.

But if frosts are to be feared, it is better to plant at a good distance apart; and, by keeping the plants free from dead leaves, allow air, light, and heat to circulate freely between them, so that they may be cut and manufactured in November.†

During the rainy season, and whenever thunder-storms occur, canes must receive a very considerable and beneficial impetus, from the electricity which their leaves attract from the overcharged atmosphere; and although we cannot know how it acts, yet no one can refuse credence to the fact of its wonderful influence on vegetation. Independent of this, however, we are assured of the quantities of ammonia and carbonic acid existing in the atmosphere of a tropical country; both of which are conveyed to the soil by the rains which fall, and serve to renovate and fertilize it. This ammonia exists in the atmosphere of tropical countries in much greater quantities than in that of Europe; in consequence of the putrefactive process being so continual, and so much more rapid than in cold or temperate climates. India, besides 200,000,000 of human beings, teems with myriads of birds, beasts, and fishes; all more or less yielding ammonia to the atmosphere both during life and after death: we can therefore imagine how it must abound. The native cultivators well know the benefit land derives from being often plowed and worked up during the rainy season; but of course, they do not know the manner in which this renovation takes place: certain it is, that there can be no country in the world where less manure is used, or where the land is so completely stripped—so hardly pressed; yet, by the practice of frequent plowing, it continues year after year to yield moderate crops. To what is this due? Is it not to atmospheric influence? Most assuredly it is. Whilst I would wish to impress this fact on the planter, I would at the same time point out to him, that although the principle is in part correct, it is on the other hand, in part, stupidly wrong; inasmuch as not long cultivated land can produce the crops it should, merely by aid of atmospheric influence: it must have returned to it as manure a portion of those constituents of which it has been deprived by cropping. The Chinese system of making land produce its utmost, and keeping it up to that standard, is the correct and strictly true principle. What is termed in the Straits, "forcing a soil to exhaustion," is an ignorant and eminently absurd expression, which has no meaning: for if a soil will produce by good management, (say) two tons of sugar, for twenty years in succession, it certainly will continue to do so *ad infinitum*: provided the same good management be exhibited.

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* Often in March. † As a general rule.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN.

We are indebted for this and the next extract to Mr. Kettell's invaluable "United States Economist."

The navigation laws of Great Britain, which were originated in the middle of the seventeenth century, and continued in force down to the peace of 1815, have now since three years been abolished in respect to the foreign trade. It was generally contended, and by many believed, that the commercial greatness of England was due, to a considerable extent, to the operation of those laws, rather than to the enterprising and commercial character of her people. The singular position of their island home, which made navigation the only means of communication with their neighbors, and eminently favored its development, inasmuch as that no wind can blow from any quarter of the compass but that it is fair for the arrival and departure of some of England's mercantile marine; her possession of oaks, iron and mechanical genius, enabled her to build, without competition, those vessels which her enterprise and necessities sent into all seas. With these advantages, it was inevitable that England should become the mistress of the seas; and to ascribe the results of those combined circumstances to the operation of law, was more worthy of a dark age than of the enlightened present. Soon after the government of Cromwell invented those laws, Colbert, in 1664, constructed the first general tariff for France, and the principles of that tariff were more strictly enforced by succeeding ministers, especially in relation to navigation, down to the present day. As long as all the countries out of Europe were dependencies of European governments, and exposed to the operation of their laws, but little progress was made in that healthful rivalry which operates to the benefit of general industry. The separation of the United States from Great Britain freed them from the operation of her laws, and compelled their relaxation. Even statesmen were not too stupid to see the necessity of modifying a state of things which compelled a British vessel to make a voyage across the Atlantic in ballast, one passage, passing a United States vessel loaded, thus charging two freights upon every cargo carried without benefiting the vessel; consequently the laws were for the first time modified, and United States and British vessels placed upon an equal footing. In 1818 the United States passed a law virtually abolishing navigation laws in favor of any nation which should adopt a similar policy. The inevitable progress of commerce, deepening its own channels, at length compelled England, in time of famine, to suspend her navigation laws, in order that vessels of all nations might bring her food. Holland and Belgium were compelled by the same necessity to do likewise, and that experiment led to the final abrogation of the English navigation laws in 1849, consequently bringing into force the United States law of 1818. France alone remains in her former position. The results of the exclusive policy of France, and of the liberal policy of the United States and Great Britain, are seen in the following table, which shows the tonnage which entered each country in 1849 and 1851, distinguishing the foreign from the national:

TABLE SHOWING THE TONNAGE WHICH ENTERED EACH COUNTRY, DISTINGUISHING THE NATIONAL FROM FOREIGN FLAGS.

	1849.		1851.	
	National.	Foreign.	National.	Foreign.
Great Britain	4,390,375	1,680,894	4,388,245	2,599,988
France	837,345	1,049,946	866,145	1,312,411
United States	2,658,325	1,710,515	3,054,349	1,939,091

The exclusive policy of France has not promoted her interests. Of the whole tonnage which enters France in any one year, only 40 per cent. is the property of French citizens. In both England and the United States the reverse is the case. It is doubtless the case that the genius of France is far less maritime than either that of England or of the United States; but the figure shows that laws can do but little towards changing the character of a people. As between the United States and England, both possessed of maritime aptness, it was fiercely contended that the superior capital and general resources of the latter would enable her, on a footing of equality, to drive the United States vessels out of the trade, at least the international trade.

It was supposed that in what was called the triangular voyage between the United States, British West Indies and England, the vessels of the latter would have such advantages as would ruin American tonnage. We may now, from official documents, compile a table of the British and American tonnage which entered the United States from each country of the world at two periods. In this table it will be seen that the operation has been altogether in favor of the United States, the tonnage of the latter showing an increase from almost every country.

BRITISH AND UNITED STATES TONNAGE ENTERED UNITED STATES.

From—	1849. British.	1849. U. S.	1851. British.	1851. U. S.
Great Britain	551,162	600,769	501,894	643,299
Canada	537,697	906,813	514,383	1,013,275
North American Colonies	314,805	120.867	361,564	62,418
British West Indies	46,686	63,523	39,894	58,353
British East Indies	—	20,529	2,508	29,907
Total G. B. dependencies	1,450,350	1,712,501	1,420,243	1,807,252
All other countries	32,357	945,820	140,022	1,247,057
Total tons	1,482,707	2,658.321	1,560,269	3,054.309

Thus we observe that the entries of United States tonnage from Great Britain increased 42,530 tons; but British tonnage decreased 49,268 tons. The same in respect to Canada and the British East Indies. From countries other than British, the trade has been virtually monopolized by United States vessels.

If we compare the progress of tonnage in the foreign trade of the United States and Great Britain, we shall have results as follows:

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN, ENTERED IN EACH YEAR.

	UNITED STATES. American.	UNITED STATES. Foreign.	GREAT BRITAIN. British.	GREAT BRITAIN. Foreign.
1834	1,074,670	568,052	1,996,930	648,911
1835	1,352,653	641,310	2,108,492	732,886
1836	1,255,384	680,213	2,250,173	832,194
1837	1,299,720	765,703		
1838	1,408,761	604,166		
1839	1,491,279	624,814	2,756,533	1,201,935
1840	1,576,946	712,363	2,807,367	1,298,840
1841	1,631,909	736,444	2,900,749	1,081,380
1842	1,510,111	732,775	2,680,838	974,768
1843, 9 mos	1,143,523	534,752	2,919,528	1,005,894
1844	1,977,438	916,992	3,087,437	1,143,896
1845	2,035.486	910,563	3,699,853	1,353,735
1846	2,221,028	968,178	3,622,808	1,407,963
1847	2,101,359	1,120,346	4,238.056	1,852,096
1848	2,393.482	1,405,191	4,020,415	1,559,046
1849	2,658,321	1,710,515	4,390,375	1,680,894
1850	2,573,016	1,775,623	4,078,544	2,035,152
1851	3,054,349	1,939,091	4,388,245	2,599,988

The year 1839–40, and in 1847, the increase of foreign tonnage entering Great Britain was large, in consequence of the great importation of corn, and these have, since the last famine, continued at an enormous figure, favoring the employment of the tonnage of the corn countries. In the above period of fifteen years, however, the entries of American tonnage in the United States have tripled, while British tonnage in England has little more than doubled. The ratio of foreign tonnage entering England has increased faster than foreign tonnage in the United States, because American vessels are included in the former. The tonnage of the U. S., in its several employments, has progressed as follows:

UNITED STATES TONNAGE.

Employed in—	1840.	1850.	1851.
Foreign Trade	752,838	1,386,754	1,482,273
Foreign Steam	—	44.942	62,390
Foreign Whale	136,926	146,016	181,644
Coasting Vessels	946,480	1,273,994	1,333,108
Do. under 20 tons	32,030	42,027	45,654
Do. Steam	198,184	481,804	521,216
Cod Fishing	67,926	85,646	87,475
Do. under 20 tons	8,109	8,160	8,140
Mackerel Fishing	28,269	58,112	50,539
Whale do.	—	—	—
Total	2,170,762	3,527,455	3,772,439

In the eleven years here embraced, the sailing tonnage in the foreign trade has doubled, and over sixty-two thousand steam tons have been added. The coasting sailing tonnage, in the same time, has increased forty per cent, and the steam two hundred per cent. The home fisheries have shown no great increase; in fact, precisely that interest which alone has received bounties from the government is the only one that has not increased. This large increase in tonnage has not been without its influence upon freights, but these have not been sufficiently depressed to prevent the construction of vessels.

The following table shows the progress of building for the foreign trade:

REGISTERED TONS BUILT AND DISPOSED OF.

	Built.	Sold to Foreigners.	Condemned.	Lost.	Increase.
1846	58,274	10,931	4,242	22,118	20,981
1847	78,849	13,907	5,096	22,078	37,766
1848	135,885	11,079	3,602	26,872	94,332
1849	99,130	12,506	7,109	23,606	55,908
1850	157,612	13,468	4,666	23,724	115,753
1851	165,849	15,246	3,806	23,149	123,647

The increase in the effective tonnage has been very large. The high freights of 1847 stimulated a great activity in the ship-yards, which subsided in the following year, to be renewed with greater vigor in the past two years. The coasting tonnage has shown the same features, notwithstanding the continual increase of competition from the rail-roads, a competition which, in England, has seriously reduced the coasting tonnage. If the coasting trade of England had been thrown open, like the foreign trade, the diminution in its movement would have been ascribed to that; but it had only the rivalry of rail-roads, and these have been effective. In the United States, great as has been the activity of the rail-road traffic, it has not, up to this time, encroached upon coasting tonnage.

2.—EXPORTS OF COTTON GOODS.

In our last number we remarked upon the importance of removing the duties upon those raw materials which enter into the cost of manufactured goods. That measure seems the more important, inasmuch as that New England goods can now compete successfully with those of Great Britain in the same markets. The following table, from official sources, shows the destination of the exports for a series of years.

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC COTTON GOODS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

To—	1833.	1846.	1850.	1851.
Asia	13,360	259,614	278,776	60,900
Africa	35,551	149,149	146,300	545,296
China	215,497	813,606	1,203,997	1,854,618
Chili	369,704	981,981	594,691	855,684
Brazil	261,640	477,864	533,187	656,417
Mexico	931,151	73,817	304,678	111,541
Hayti	20,750	52,274	264,992	296,051
British East Indies	37,214	77,575	311,265	320,906
Buenos Ayres	160,888	9,666	169,892	88,792
Cuba	42,871	37,808	24,421	25,741
Texas	—	59,298	—	—
Canada, &c.	—	—	248,165	1,221,934
All other	443,888	583,830	537,060	1,163,525

The returns from Boston and New-York, of the quantity exported this year, as compared with last, will indicate that the value will reach $10,000,000 for 1852.

The aggregate value has nearly tripled since 1833, showing a greater ratio of increase than the exports of Great Britain, which from a value of £18,486,401 in 1833, reached an export value of £30,089,000 in 1851. But it would seem to be the case, that the exports of the New-England States increase as the quantity of cotton taken declines, notwithstanding the fact that many raw materials which enter into the manufacturing are exposed here to taxes, which the British manufacturers do not have to pay. The remarkable impulse which has been given to the foreign sales of domestic goods may be seen in the following table, from official sources, of the export of cotton goods from the rival manufacturers of Great Britain and the United States, and the bales of cotton consumed in each country for several different years:

	UNITED STATES.		GREAT BRITAIN.	
	Bales Consumed.	Value Exports.	Bales Consumed.	Val. Exp's.
1833	194,412	$2,532,517	877,589	£18,486,401
1835	216,888	2,858,681	937,616	20,513,586
1838	246,063	3,678,755	1,265,116	24,550,375
1842	267,850	2,970,690	1,221,693	25,999,478
1844	346,744	2,898,880	1,427,482	25,831,586
1845	389,006	4,327,928	1,577,617	26,119,321
1846	422,597	3,545,481	1,561,232	25,610,693
1847	427,967	4,082,532	1,142,008	24,472,936
1848	531,772	5,718,205	1,508,291	23,339,000
1849	518,039	4,933,129	1,586,606	26,890,000
1850	487,769	4,734,424	1,513,007	28,252,700
1851	404,108	7,241,205	1,664,575	30,089,000

The manufacture in the United States has, in the period embraced in the table, increased 212,000 bales, and the export has increased but $4,500,000. In Great Britain the consumption has doubled, yet the export has increased in a less ratio. It would seem, nearly all the increase of her manufactures is for export.

It will be observed that in the table of "bales consumed," is given only the cotton taken by the manufacturers from the ports, and does not embrace the annually increasing quantities sent to the factories of the interior from plantations. It will now be observed that the average official value of cotton in 1850 was 11¼ cents, and in 1851, 12 cents. At this rate, the bales in the last year were worth $48, and in the former $45 each. On this basis the results are as follow:

	Bales used.	Value.	Value Exported Goods.
1850	487,269	$21,948,605	4,734,424
1851	404,108	19,397,184	7,241,205
Decrease	83,661	$2,551,421	—
Increase	—	—	2,506,781

This great change in the direction of goods would indicate the extent to which the coarser descriptions are supplied from the factories of the South and West, and to which those of the Atlantic States, so supplanted, find markets abroad. It is probably the case that the diminished purchases of cotton in the last ten years resulted less from decreased actual consumption than from using up stocks, which are now apparently being replaced by the large purchases which the cotton returns indicate. California has opened a fair market, but the whole of Asia, including China and the British and Dutch East Indies, take increased quantities. The consumption of United States cotton in Canada, during the past year, is, however, the most pleasing indication of New-England progress, in competition with the English. The removal of the duties on the raw material will give a still greater advantage to the trade in this direction.

3.—COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

LEAD.

Total Product of the Upper Mines, received at the Port of St. Louis, for the past eleven years, viz: from 1841 *to* 1851:

1841	463,404	pigs	32,438,280	lbs.	aver. price	$3 55	$1,151,558 94
1842	473,699	"	33,158,930	"	"	3 00	994,767 90
1843	584 131	"	40,889.170	"	"	2 70	1,104,007 59
1844	624,601	"	43,722,070	"	"	3 00	1,311,662 10
1845	778.460	"	54,492,200	"	"	3 30	1,798,242 60
1846	752,403	"	52,668,210	"	"	3 50	1,843,387 35
1847	802,656	"	56,185,920	"	"	3 75	2,106,972 00
1848	681,969	"	47,737,830	"	"	3 60	1,718,561 88
1849	625,562	"	43,789,340	"	"	4 05	1,773,468 27
1850	567,496	"	39,724,720	"	"	4 45	1,766,750 04
1851	540,000	"	37,800,000	"	"	4 20	1,577,600 00
							$17,147,978 67

There are no means of ascertaining the exact product of the Lower Mines, but the most reliable information fixes it at 150,000 pigs annually, for the past eleven years—say:

11 years—150,000 pigs, or 115,500,000 pounds, at $3 50—$4,042,500 00

This shows the value of the product of the Upper and Lower Mines for the past eleven years, to be twenty-one millions, one hundred and ninety thousand four hundred and seventy-eight dollars and sixty-seven cents.

GROCERIES.

Commencing with the year 1841, we find that the wholesale grocery trade, which usually embraced the commission business, was confined to some twenty houses, with an aggregate capital of $1,500,000.

The imports were estimated at two and-a-half millions of dollars, with sales amounting to $3,500,000.

Suffering alike with all other branches of business during the revulsions of 1841 and 1842, we find, that although the sales during this period maintained about the usual average, with perhaps a slight diminution, yet not until the commencement of the new era, in 1845, did a healthful increase manifest itself.

From this period may we date the rapid and extraordinary increase in the grocery business. The restoration of confidence, the great influx of emigrants, the improvement in the condition of the country generally, requiring, not only the necessaries, but the luxuries of life, combined to advance this department of trade more rapidly than could have been anticipated under ordinary circumstances.

In addition to these causes, we might include the opening of the Michigan Canal, connecting us with the cities and vast country bordering on the lakes—affording them supplies of groceries at greatly reduced prices, and supplanting, to a very considerable extent, the trade with the eastern cities.

From 1845, we estimate the grocery trade to have increased almost one hundred per cent., with a capital proportionably enlarged.

The total sales of the jobbing grocers, for the year 1851, approximates to $10,000,000, whilst the trade of the retail grocers of the city approaches to two-and-a-half millions of dollars.

We append a tabular statement, showing the imports of four of the most important or leading articles in the grocery trade for the past six years:

		1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
SUGAR—	Hhds	11,603	12,671	26,116	26,500	25,796	29,274
"	Bbls	5,752	20,111	14,812	7,348	5,031	20,856
"	Boxes					11,328	15,834
COFFEE—	Bags	65,128	77,767	78,842	67,353	73,673	101,903
MOLASSES—	Bbls	14,996	21,554	21,948	29,214	29,518	40,281
SALT—	Sacks	177,724	106,302	204,741	291,709	261,330	266,933
"	Bbls	58,948	41,380	38,809	23,553	19,158	46,250

DRY GOODS.

Referring to the year 1841, we find that the entire wholesale dry goods business was transacted by about ten houses, several of which kept assorted stocks of other wares, now forming separate and distinct branches of trade.

The aggregate capital then employed approximated to $600,000, and sales to the country merchants were estimated at about $1,250,000.

The newness of the country, excess of imports over exports, great length of credits, and dearth of moneyed facilities, were, perhaps, principal causes why this branch of business, for several years, up to 1845, paid little or no remuneration.

Business was almost entirely transacted on credit—the time granted, or in a manner, forcibly taken from the wholesale dry goods men—so extended their credits as to render them, to a certain extent, the underwriters for the other departments of trade, and they probably suffered more than any other. Indeed, the losses were so heavy, and apparently unavoidable—it is questionable whether the gains of any one house, uninterruptedly engaged in the business during that period, more than equaled their expenses. From 1845, when our city sprang, as it were, into a new commercial existence—when wide extents of tributary country, from sparsely settled lands and indigent inhabitants—seemed, by some magic transition, to suddenly smile with improvements, civilization, and growing wealth. From that time may we date the permanent establishment and rapid increase, of not only this, but of every other branch of trade. A total reorganization seems to have been formed—a new and powerful impetus appears to have been given. Instead of unlimited credits, prompt payments were agreed upon and exacted—the "no-lapping system" rigorously adhered to, and goods were afforded at greatly reduced profits.

In consequence, the imports were more than trebled in one year; sales were proportionably increased; and both the country and city merchant experienced and acknowledged the benefit of the change.

Coming down to the end of the decade, we find the houses engaged *exclusively* in jobbing dry goods, to number *about* twenty, and the capital employed to approximate to three millions of dollars.

The imports during the year, ending Sept. 1st, we estimate at $6,000,000; and sales to the country, including the season ending December 1st, at $7,000,000.

This is exclusive of the retail trade, (in which branch many houses wholesale to a considerable extent,) and we estimate the amount of their importations to be about three millions of dollars, with sales approaching to $4,000,000, making the total imports of dry goods to be $9,000,000, and sales approximating to $11,000,000.

4.—THE COFFEE TRADE.*

The rapid increase of the quantity of Coffee produced in the Brazils is expressed in the following table, compiled by the Brazilian Consul General:

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* The reader will refer to an elaborate paper, which we published in our second volume, upon this subject, and which we now conclude to date.

Production of Coffee in the Brazils.

	Bags.	Arrobas.	Lbs.
1820	95,700	478,500	15,312,000
1825	182,710	912,550	29,201,600
1830	391,785	1,958,925	62,685,600
1835	627,165	3,135,825	100,346,400
1840	1,063,805	5,319,005	170,208,800
1850–51	1,897,231	9,486,155	303,556,960
1851–52, estimate	1,700,060	8,500,000	272,000,000

It would seem from this table that the production of coffee in Brazil doubled every five years up to 1840. since when it has increased 80 per cent. The increase since 1835 has been 200 million pounds; and of that increase the United States have taken one-half. In the previous number of the *Economist*, we showed that almost all the increased production of sugar in Cuba had found a market in the United States. It now appears that a considerable proportion of the Brazil coffee finds a market here also. This is indicated in the following table, which shows the quantity annually imported into the United States from the four leading countries of production, and also the whole quantity imported into the Union during the past 18 years:

Import of Pounds of Coffee into the United States.

	Brazil.	Cuba.	St. Domingo.	Java	Total.
1834	26,571,368	19,536,457	15,141,779	5,307,186	80,153,366
1835	35,774,876	29,373,675	19,276,290	4,728,890	103,199,577
1836	46,840,219	17,850,736	11,772,064	8,850,658	103,790,507
1837	33,906,236	29,503,553	9,252,636	1,779,819	88,140,403
1838	27,411,986	33,051,651	11,375,350	2,423,277	88,130,720
1839	48,694,294	26,181.489	9,726,495	5,628,348	106,696,992
1840	47,412,756	25,331,888	9,153,524	4,343,254	94,996,095
1841	59,575,722	17,198,573	12,547,791	6,794,702	114,948,783
1842	61,248,942	14,321.458	11,530,102	9,781,418	112,764,635
1843	49,515,666	16,611,287	10,811,288	1,638,307	92,295,660
1844	95,291,484	18,628,875	20,781,461	8,740,841	158,332,111
1845	78,553,616	1,157,794	13,090,359	3,925,716	108,133,369
1846	97,353,697	2,326,497	12,734,753	2,819.411	132,812,734
1847	94,916,629	6,673,479	19,085,277	17,819,345	156,716,575
1848	110,927,284	2,258,710	16,990,976	3,037,377	150,559,138
1849	122,581,183	4,000,986	13,384,474	4,208,078	165,334,700
1850	90,319,511	3,740,803	19,440,985	5,146,961	144,986,895
1851	107,578,257	3,099,084	13,205,766	2,423,968	152,453,617

Nearly the whole increase in the import of Brazil coffee was, it appears, at New-Orleans, to supply the Western trade. The import of coffee from Brazil in 1844 was extraordinary, amounting to nearly half the whole product of that country. Coffee, up to 1832, paid a duty of 5 per cent.; since that year it has been free. The effect of this change is seen in the following table:

Imports of Coffee into the United States, with the Export and Quantity retained for Consumption, also the Duty and Average Price.

	Import. Pounds.	Export. Pounds.	Consumption. Pounds.	Duty. per lb.	Av. cost. per lb.
1821	21,273,659	9,387,596	11,886,063	5 cents.	20
1822	25,082,390	7,267,119	18,515,271		20
1823	37,337,732	20,900,687	16,437,045		20
1824	30,224,296	19,427,227	19,707,024		20
1825	45,390,620	24,512,568	20,678,062	5 cents.	17
1826	37,319,107	11,584,713	31,734,784		11
1827	50,051,986	21,697,789	28,350,197		11
1828	55,194,697	16,037,964	39,156,733		9
1829	51,133,538	18,083,843	33,049,695	5 cents.	9
1830	51,488,248	13,124,561	38,363,687	2 cents.	8¾
1831	81,747,386	6,056,629	75,702,757		8
1832	91,722,329	55,251,158	40,471,171	1 cent.	10

Import of Coffee into the United States, &c., continued.

	Import. Pounds.	Export. Pounds.	Consumption. Pounds.	Duty.	Av. cost per lb.
1833	99,955,020	24,899,114	75,057,906		10
1834	80,150,365	35,806,861	44,346,505		10
1835	103,199,777	11,446,775	91,752,802		10
1836	93,790,507	16,143,207	77,647,300		10
1837	88,140,403	12,096,332	76,044,071		10
1838	88,139,720	5,267,087	82,872,633		9
1839	106,696,992	6,824,475	99,872,633		9
1840	94,996,095	8,698,334	86,207,761		9
1841	144,987,787	5,784,536	109,200,247		9
1842	112,764,635	5,378,068	107,383,567	free.	8
1843	82,295,660	6,378,994	85,916,666		6¼
1844	158,332,111	8,620,291	149,711,820		6
1845	108,133,369	13,501,972	94,631,397		6
1846	132,812,734	8,275,542	124,537,192		6¾
1847	156,716,575	6,383,583	150,332,992		5¼
1848	150,559,138	6,998,088	143,561,050		5¾
1849	165,334,700	14,380,429	150,954,271		5½
1850	144,986,895	15,287,499	129,699,396		8
1851	152,453,617	3,513,126	148,920,491		8

The population of the United States in 1840 was, in round numbers, 17 millions. The average consumption for the three years 1839–40–41 was 98½ millions of pounds, which gave a consumption of 5¾ pounds per head. The average for the three years, including the census year 1850, was 143 millions of pounds, and the population was 23 millions, which gave a consumption of 6¼ pounds per head. In 1830 the consumption was only three pounds per head; but the price had ruled nearly double what it did in the three years preceding 1850. In 1821 the consumption, per head, to the inhabitants of the United States was one pound four ounces. In 1830 the proportion had increased to three pounds per head, the foreign price having fallen 50 per cent. After the 31st December, 1830, coffee paid two cents, and in 1831, one cent; after which it was free. The importation in the year 1831 doubled in consequence of the reduced duty; and the consumption, per head, for the four years ending with 1842, averaged six pounds per head, having quadrupled to each inhabitant since 1821. A large portion of the increased consumption, as seen above, is derived from the Brazils; the effect of the production of which country has been to the price of coffee what the products of the Southern States have been to that of cotton. From 1820 to 1840, the Brazilian product increased 1100 per cent., or 155,000,000 pounds. In the same time the consumption in the United States increased 137,000,000 pounds; leaving an increase of 18,000,000 pounds of Rio coffee, besides the enhanced products of all countries, to supply the increased consumption of England and Europe. The result has been, the great diminution in price evinced in the above table. The cost per pound to the consumer was in 1831 further reduced by the removal of the duty; that is, the coffee which cost nine cents in 1830, cost the consumer 16 cents duty and charges. The same coffee now costs seven cents—a reduction of nine cents, which has given the spur to the consumption. In England, foreign coffee paid 16 cents per pound duty, and colonial coffee 8 cents, until 1845, when colonial was reduced to 3d. and foreign to 7d. The consequence is, that while the United States, with a population of 17,000,000, consumed in 1844, 149,711,820 pounds of coffee, Great Britain, with a population of 27,000,000. consumed 31,934,000 pounds only, or less than one-fourth the consumption of the United States. In 1851 the figures remained nearly the same, viz: 148,920,000 pounds in the United States, and 32,564,000 pounds for Great Britain. Now the effect of this increased consumption of Brazil coffee on the American trade, is as follows:

	1834.	1843.	1851.
Import of coffee from Brazil	lb.26,571,368	49,515,666	107,578,257
do. do. do. value	$2,819,028	3,392,960	8,881,105
Export of U. S. produce to Brazil	$1,586,097	2,409,419	3,128,956

This increased export does not appear to suffice for the compensation of the large increase in the value of coffee purchased; and it is time that some movement were made to check English influence in that quarter, and induce Brazil to place her best coffee customer at least on as favorable footing as others.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE SUPPLY OF COTTON.

The importance of increasing the number of the sources and the extent of the area from whence the raw material cotton can be derived for the use of the British manufacturers is becoming every day more apparent, and is every day more emphatically insisted upon. Mr. Bazley, the chairman of the Chamber of Commerce at Manchester, has been lately lecturing upon the subject before Prince Albert and the Society of Arts. Mr. Bazley strongly urged the necessity of encouraging, by all possible means, the growth of cotton in the British colonies; this necessity was rendered every day more urgent by "the limited supply from the United States and the increased competition in the manufacture of cotton." The question is widely and ably discussed in the principal English journals, and we think the general tone of these discussions leads directly to the inference that it must be many years before the cotton mills of Lancashire can depend upon receiving any material proportion of the raw material from any other source than the United States. If this be so, and you cannot increase your cotton-growing lands, nor by improved cultivation, increase the produce of the present cotton-producing area, it is evident that the price of the raw material must rise, from the combined effects of a limited and stationary supply and an increased demand.

The following are some of the striking facts connected with the cotton question:

In 1800 the raw cotton imported into Great Britain amounted to	56,000,000 pounds.
In 1815 to	100,000,000 "
In 1835 to	400,000,000 "
In 1851 to	700,000,000 "

or about 1,000 tons a day. For no less than seventeen-twentieths of this raw cotton Great Britain is indebted to the United States, the remainder being received from India, Brazil, and Egypt. About one-seventh part of the whole amount of cotton imported into Great Britain is exported again in the raw state; therefore six hundred millions of pounds are manufactured—or at least were manufactured during the last year—in the British factories, where they give employment to a million and a half of people. The cotton thus used is disposed of in something like the following proportions: One-tenth wasted in the process of manufacture, in refuse, &c. Of the remaining 550,000,000 pounds, one-fourth is worked up for home consumption, the other three-fourths manufactured into goods for exportation. The value of the cotton manufactures of last year is estimated at £45,000,000, of which about two-thirds are believed to have been paid in wages. About 800,000 tons of shipping are yearly employed by the various operations incident to the cotton trade. Every variation of a farthing in the pound upon the price of the raw material affects the annual consumption of Great Britain at least £500,000 sterling. So perfect is the cotton machinery of England, Mr. Bazley says it far exceeds that of any other country, although France takes the lead of Great Britain in beauty of design in printed cotton fabrics, that cotton yarn has been produced so wonderfully fine in texture as to be imperceptible to the naked eye unless placed upon a dark surface. The length of a hank of cotton is 840 yards; it would require more than 2,000 hanks of this gossamer cotton to weigh one pound. Twenty-five pounds of this delicate fibre would encircle the globe at the equator.

It is a curious fact in the statistics of cotton that about 250,000 barrels of flour, costing about three-fourths of a million sterling, are consumed annually in the process of starching the fibres whilst being spun. Charles Dickens, in a late number of his "Household Words," after enumerating the striking facts of the cotton trade, says:

"Let any great social or physical convulsion visit the United States, and England would feel the shock from Land's End to John O'Groat's. The lives of nearly two millions of our countrymen are dependent upon the cotton crops of America; their destiny may be said, without any sort of hyperbole, to hang upon a thread. Should any dire calamity befall the land of cotton, a thousand of our merchant ships would rot idly in dock; ten thousand mills must stop their busy looms; two thousand thousand mouths would starve for lack of food to feed them."—*London Correspondence of the National Intelligencer.*

2.—NEAT AND PROFITABLE FARMING.

We give below an accurate statement, made by Mr. William P. Butler, of Edgefield, South Carolina, of his management of a few acres of ground in the immediate vicinity of that village. This is not presented as a *very* extraordinary instance of excellent farming; but as one in every way worthy of commendation and of imitation. We will state, from our own knowledge, a fact or two which Mr. Butler has omitted to mention. One is, that the servant, who cultivated this field, attended to all the out door work of Mr. Butler's yard, such as hauling and cutting wood, attending to stables, &c. The other is that the land itself was originally of barely medium quality.

We will be glad to receive similar reports from others of the net products of their farms. It would tend to awaken a very proper degree of emulation.

We have taken the liberty of copying and publishing the one below of our own accord.

Memorandum of Produce on Farm of fifteen acres of land for the year 1851—*cultivated by a single hand.*

15 acres of corn, averaging 16 2-3 bushels per acre, producing 250 bushels corn, at $1		$250 00
The fodder and tops cured and housed, valued at		25 00
The peas, pea vines, pumpkins and shucks, valued at		50 00
		$325 00
Upon the same land from which the above was gathered, sowed as follows: Seven and a half acres in oats, five in rye, two and a half in wheat.		
The benefit of pastures worth all of		25 00
		$350 00
DR. TO ——.		
7 bushels rye, purchased at $1 25	$8 75	
5 " peas, " 80	4 00	
Cash paid for help	7 00—	19 75
Net profit		$330 25

3.—MANAGEMENT OF SLAVES.

Having noticed numerous articles in your very interesting paper on the management of servants, and perceiving they all differ somewhat with me, I will also give my views, as I have every reason to believe that my plan is equally successful. My number of hands is thirty. I have them as near equally divided as possible of males and females. I do this in order that each man may have his own wife on the premises. They then have no excuse for leaving home. I never permit my servants to leave the plantation, unless on business, or to attend church. Neither do I permit other negroes to visit my place. I have seen the inconsistency, as well as every owner of slaves, of their visiting; therefore, I prohibit it. I have them to rise in time to be at their labor by light. Their breakfast hour is eight o'clock. At this meal they have bread, a small portion of meat, a cup of coffee, and butter-milk, which requires fifteen minutes. At dinner, at twelve o'clock, I repeat the meat and bread, and as many wholesome vegetables as they wish. Vegetables I find to be very wholesome, and they then require less meat and bread. In the winter they have one hour, and summer three to rest, in the heat of the day. I don't know that I lose by this, as they work much faster while they are at it. At supper, which is when their day's labor is closed, they have bread and milk. I give them molasses at nearly every meal; that saves meat also. I never heard one of my negroes complain that he did not have sufficient to eat. I never permit them to work after night, as I feel fully compensated with their day's labor. I require them to retire at nine o'clock precisely. The foreman calls the roll at that hour, and two or three times during the night, to see that all are at their places. By having this rule strictly adhered to, I never find any difficulty in raising fowls, pigs and numerous articles that other farmers find difficulty in raising. I never found it necessary to employ an overseer. My foreman answers every purpose, as I live on my plantation and pay my individual attention to it, which every farmer should do who wishes his farm to prosper.

Each of the men has an acre of ground to cultivate of his own, and I reward the one that gathers the largest and best crop. With the proceeds of their crop they purchase their Sunday clothing; they also furnish their coffee, which I permit them to drink every morning for breakfast, as it has some influence to drive off the effect of the dew. I am particular that they keep their clothes neat, as well as their houses and yards, which I find they can do much easier since I prohibit their cooking any thing whatever in their houses. I have all their meals cooked in the kitchen. I have noticed that when they did their own cooking, they did it at night when tired, and their provisions were either not half done or burnt partly up; therefore they were not wholesome. I allow them to have a dance occasionally, but confined to my own negroes. I think it a very harmless amusement. They are much more cheerful and happy when indulged occasionally. I generally give them two or three big dinners, as they are termed, during the year. That also has a tendency to cheer them, and it always contributes largely to my happiness to see others happy, particularly those who are dependent on me. I always give them half of each Saturday, and often the whole day, at which time the men cultivate their crops, and the women do their household work; therefore, they are never idle. By pursuing this plan with my servants, they perceive that I have an interest in their welfare, and they become attached to me, and have respect for my orders; therefore, I am seldom reduced to the necessity of punishing them. I seldom use the rod, but cause them to work after the other servants have finished their task. Some men will say that this plan will not do to make money, but I know of no man who realizes more to the hand than I. We should all remember that our slaves are human beings as well as ourselves, and heirs of the same glorious inheritance.—*Alabama Planter.*

4.—KEEP A PLANTATION RECORD.

There is a good deal of sound sense in the views of one of our exchanges upon this point. We have ourselves frequently pressed it. Would not agricultural information and experience be thus extended, and improvement advanced? Why not Plantation as well as Mercantile Records?

It is to be regretted that so much of what is learned by observation and experience, should have no more permanent record than that of the memory. That whilst new facts are occurring, and new opinions are forming, that much that is valuable in the past should be obliterated. So that knowledge, which should be always accumulating, often turns out to be little more than a substitution of new ideas for old. To be practically wise, and to leave the benefits of that wisdom to others, we should adopt some plan by which we should have access to the old as well as to the new thoughts and observations which we may have made. It is often worth as much to us to know where we have erred, as to know how we have succeeded. This knowledge can never be fully available, unless we have some record to which we can refer; and we therefore advise that all planters and overseers shall make full notes of the business under their charge. Our interest, as well as our information, is greatly increased by entering into the details of our business. Set down the number of hands, and what the real effective forces. The size of the crop—how many acres in corn—how many in cotton, small grain, &c. The size of each field—the character and condition of the soil—whether old land or new, upland or bottom, soft or hard, and in what to be planted—how many plows, you run—what kind, and the character and condition of the team. Here you have a sort of programme of the year's operations, and when accomplished, you will know what, and how it has been done, and with what sort of instrumentalities; valuable information may thus be derived, and you will be prepared to speak and act understandingly, in determining the question of ability to cultivate or not such a crop with such a force. This information will be still more complete, if in the progress of operations, the time and manner of preparation, as well as the time and manner of planting, shall be fully noted. Also, when and how the crop was worked—its size at particular dates, and when and how much it rained, or what may have been the peculiarity of the seasons, and their effect upon the crop; and when, and under what circumstances, the crop was laid by. These records of the events of each day, with suitable comments, and remarks at the time, cannot fail of benefit to all those who make them—and in a series of years, if preserved, become valuable for reference. And we would not stop here, but note the absence of every operative, and the cause of such absence, each day: and let that report be read out publicly at the end of each month. Then it will be seen who have been at their post, and who not; and the inquiry will arise as to the sufficiency of the excuse of such as are frequently absent, and their own shame, and the sneers of the faithful, will make hypocrisy a thorny garb to wear, and provoke those who have the work to do, to lift the veil, and let the secret out, if deception be practised; and if disease be really the cause, the attention of the superintendent will be constantly directed to the necessity of proper care and treatment. The number of cattle, sheep, goats and hogs, and their condition, ought all to be noted, and these accounts carefully revised at least once a quarter.

In gathering the crop, careful note should be taken of all the operations, showing the time of gathering, and the results, at least as far as to know what each field has done. This, and much more, ought to be done; and none who do it will regret the labor, or feel that it has been lost; and though it may seem a task in the aggregate, to the unskilled penman, when the labor of each day is divided out, it will not be burthensome, and soon become a pleasant and interesting work.

5.—VIRGINIA AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

In compliance with a resolution of the House of Delegates, the Secretary of the Commonwealth recently communicated to that body a statistical table of the Agricultural Productions, &c., in Virginia, compiled and arranged from the census returns.

Acres of Land in Farms.

Divisions.	Improved.	Unimproved.	Cash Value of Farms
Trans. Alleghany	1,965,040	6,954,536	49,527,721
Valley	1,580,359	2,187,689	51,079,875
Piedmont	4,347,757	4,045,099	72,230,951
Tide-Water	2,467,079	2,604,882	43,563,058
Totals	10,360,235	15,792,206	216,401,605

Live Stock.

	Horses.	Asses and Mules.	Milch Cows.	Working Oxen.	Other Cattle.
Trans. Alleghany	92,442	1,968	112,850	14,550	248,967
Valley	57,933	869	53,925	1,623	129,074
Piedmont	83,488	7,551	90,518	37,678	186,298
Tide-Water	38,530	11,095	60,326	35,662	104,798
Totals	272,393	21,483	317,619	89,513	669,137

	Sheep.	Swine.	Value of Live Stock
Trans. Alleghany	639,469	535,815	9,861,324
Valley	189,212	244,856	6,696,850
Piedmont	333,373	601,349	10,687,546
Tide-Water	148,450	447,823	6,410,939
Totals	1,310,504	1,829,843	33,656,659

Produce during the Year ending June 1, 1850.

	Bushels of Wheat.	Rye.	Indian Corn.	Oats.
Trans. Alleghany	1,289,245	168,551	9,485,398	3,443,541
Valley	3,771,555	165,765	4,182,234	1,352,616
Piedmont	4,316,753	105,375	11,695,752	3,659,411
Tide-Water	1,835,063	19,239	9,890,935	1,723,581
Totals	11,212,616	458,930	35,254,319	10,179,149

	Pounds of Tobacco.	Wool.	Butter.	Cheese.
Trans. Alleghany	290,717	1,291,472	4,157,256	190,629
Valley	622,246	520,705	2,292,286	93,459
Piedmont	54,286,345	721.199	3,183,691	110,791
Tide-Water	1,603,919	327,389	1,496,146	41,413
Totals	56,803,127	2,860,765	11,089 379	436,292

	Value of Homemade Manufactures.	Value of Animals Slaughtered.
Trans. Alleghany	792,809	1,676,699
Valley	233,465	1,272,368
Piedmont	784,438	2,632,903
Tide-Water	345,600	1,921,016
Totals	2,156,312	7,502,986

6.—RICE.

In many years the crop of rice has neither been so large nor so high as in the year 1847. In 1833 the quantity exported was nearly the same as in that year; but did not sell for so much by nearly $6 per tierce, or 25 per cent. lower than last year's prices.

Export of Tierces from the United States.

	1833.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Russia	2,352	1,737	3,333	2,870	980
Prussia	28	1,791	96	2,537	1,538
Denmark	5,906	7,304	2,716	5,757	4,328
Hanse Towns	15,318	9,009	17,427	15,436	17,867
Holland	12,897	1,408	5,753	8,232	4,156
Belgium	1,007	6,447	8,951	9,420	5,301
England	29,694	18,833	28,058	26,754	15,728
British W. I.	4,830	4,303	3,955	4,287	2,777
France	19,082	8,942	10,203	11,469	6,784
Cuba	16,204	28,048	32,132	24,304	27,618
Other	26,745	12,531	15,237	15,003	18,513
Total	144,163	100,400	128,861	127,069	105,590
Value	2,744,418	2,331,824	2,569,362	2,631,557	2,170,927
Per Tierce	$19.03	$23.22	$19.90	$23.00	$.20.50

The greatest increase since 1842 has been to Prussia, Belgium, the Hanse Towns, and Holland, under the influence of the modified duties upon that article, adopted in 1838, through the influence of our Minister, the late Mr. Wheaton, at the Court of Berlin. The export to England has declined, notwithstanding that the price per tierce has been lower. It is difficult, however, for our rice planters to contend against the cheap rice of the East Indies, in those years when freights are cheap.

The extra demand of England for food last year induced a larger import of rice than ever, and she apparently outbid Prussia for it; and she took less directly from the South, owing to the high freights. The Hanse Towns and Belgium are the avenues into the customs union; and through them and Prussia were last year sent 24,622 tierces, worth $615,550, against $16,453 in 1833, when the crop was larger. The revenues of the customs union increased by this modification of the duties upon rice, and the result so favorable to the incomes of the German governments participating in those revenues, were eminently calculated to promote further reforms in the same direction.

The following embraces general remarks in relation to rice, for a series of years:

Quantities and Value of Rice Exported from the United States.

	Tierces.	Value.	Value per Tierce.
1833	441,144	$2,744,418	$19.03
1838	71,319	1,721,819	24.25
1840	101,660	1,942,076	19.10
1842	114,617	1,907,387	16.65
1844	134,715	2,182,463	16.20
1845	118,621	2,160,456	18.25
1846	124,007	2,564,991	20.50
1847	144,427	3,605,896	24.90
1848	100,407	2,331,824	23.20
1849	128,861	2,569,362	19.90
1850	127.069	2,631,557	23.00
1851	105,500	2,170,927	20.50

MISCELLANEOUS.

1.—IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The annual report from the State Department, on the subject of immigration, shows the following facts. The statements apply to the calendar year ending 31st December, 1851. The arrivals of passengers from foreign ports, into the several districts of the United States, for that year, were as given below:

Maine	5,360	South Carolina	1,811
New-Hampshire	108	Georgia	510
Massachusetts	25,579	Alabama	344
Rhode-Island	175	Florida	81
New-York	294,445	Louisiana	52.011
Pennsylvania	18,556	Texas	1,208
Maryland	8,589		
Virginia	29	Total	408,828

This number was classified thus:

Males	245,017
Females	163,745
Sex not stated	66
Of these, there belonged to the United States	29,367
To foreign countries	379,461
Embarked from Great Britain and Ireland	208,248
Embarked from Ireland alone	55,874
Embarked from Germany	72,283
Embarked from France	20,107

The report covers the fifteen months, from September 30, 1850, to the close of the last calendar year; but the above figures embrace only the twelve months of 1851 In my next I shall probably give the exact number for the omitted quarter.

Very erroneous impressions exist in the United States and elsewhere, as to the extent of immigration into the country, and the number of inhabitants of foreign birth now residing in it. In a recent debate in the British Parliament, a prominent member in the House of Lords, the Archbishop of Cashel, stated that there were 7,500,000 Irishmen in the United States; and I have seen in many newspapers what purports to be an elaborate and detailed statement of the number of Germans among us, from which it would appear that there were 5,000,000 of that nation in this country. These accounts are all ridiculous exaggerations. The Report of the Superintendent of the Census furnishes the following very useful table, which enables us to correct these errors, and presents a very clear view of the subject.

The following statement will show the accessions to our population. from immigration, from 1790 to 1850:

Number of foreigners arriving from 1790 to 1810	120,000
Natural increase, reckoned in periods of ten years	47,560
Number of foreigners arriving from 1810 to 1820	114,000
Increase of the above to 1820	19,000
Increase from 1810 to 1820, of those arriving previous to 1810	58,450
Total number of immigrants, and descendants of immigrants, in 1820	359,010
Number of immigrants arriving from 1820 to 1830	203,979
Increase of the above	35,728
Increase from 1820 to 1830, of immigrants and descendants of immigrants, in the country in 1820	134,130
Total number of immigrants, and descendants of immigrants, in the United States in 1830	732,847
Number of immigrants arriving from 1830 to 1840	778,500
Increase of the above	135,150
Increase from 1830 to 1840, of immigrants and descendants of immigrants, in the United States in 1830	254,445
Total number of immigrants, and descendants of immigrants, in the United States in 1840	1,900,942
Number of immigrants arriving from 1840 to 1850	1,542,850
Increase of the above at twelve per cent	185,142
Increase from 1840 to 1850 of immigrants and descendants of immigrants, in the United States in 1840	722,000
Total number of immigrants in the United States since 1790, and their descendants in 1850	4.350,934

The complete report on the census will supply an exact classification of our population by nativity, as well as by age and race. In the meantime, it may be said that the census tables show the actual number of foreigners arrived in the United States from 1790 to 1850—60 years—to have been 2,758,000; of whom it is not at all likely that more than 2,000,000 survived in June of the latter year. In the two years that have since elapsed, about 700,000 have arrived; so that of the whole population, now amounting to 25,500,000, not more than 2,700,000 are really of foreign birth.

About one-half the entire immigration into the United States, for the last twenty years, has been of the Irish people; about one-fourth Germans; and the remaining quarter consists of persons belonging to nearly every nation on the face of the earth. It may be assumed, therefore, that we have 1,350,000 Irish, and 675,000 Germans, among our population.

2.—CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

As this city is to become one of the poles of the great central rail-road. which is to connect the Gulf of Mexico with the Northern Lakes, the other pole being New-Orleans or Mobile, as the case may be, it is time that something of her condition and prospects should be known to us. We make some extracts from an elaborate paper, published in in the Tribune of that city.

POPULATION.

In 1837, at the first Municipal election, the vote for Mayor stood as follows:

For W. B. Ogden	470
" J. H. Kinzie	233
Total vote in 1837	703

At the Municipal election, March, 1851, the following is the vote cast for Mayor:

For W. S. Gurnee	2,032
" J. Curtiss	1,051
" E. B. Williams	1,089
" J. Rogers	230
Total vote in 1851	4,402

The first census returns of the city which we have been able to procure, are for the year 1840. In the years 1841, 1842, 1844, and 1851, no census was taken. The following are the returns for the other years:

1840	4,479	1847	16,859
1843	7,580	1848	20,023
1845	12,088	1849	23,047
1846	14,169	1850	28,269

The census of 1850 was taken by the United States Marshal, on the first day of June, and shows an increase from August, of the previous year, of 5,222. If the ratio of increase has not fallen off since then—and our best informed citizens are of opinion that it has increased—the population of Chicago, on the 1st day of January, 1852, was a little over 40,000.

In 1839 the total valuation of property in Chicago was $236,842. In 1851 the books of the assessor show a valuation of $8,562.717—of which $6.804,262 was real estate.

COMMERCE.

We subjoin a table of the value of imports and exports, from 1836 to 1848 inclusive:

	Imports.	Exports.
1836	$325,203 90	$1,000 64
1837	373,677 12	11,665 00
1838	579,174 61	16,044 75
1839	630,980 26	33,843 00
1840	562,106 20	228,635 74
1841	564,347 88	348,862 24
1842	664,347 88	659,305 20
1843	971,849 75	682,210 85
1844	1,686,416 00	785,504 23
1845	2,043,445 73	1,543,519 85
1846	2,027,150 00	1,813,468 00
1847	2,641,852 52	2,296,299 00
1848	8,338,639 86	10,709,333 40

CORN.

The following table shows the shipments for a series of years:

1847	67,315 bush.	1850	262,013 bush.
1848	550,460 "	1851	3,221,317 "
1849	644,848 "		

WHEAT.

The following table shows the shipments of wheat from this port for ten years:

1842	586,907 bushels.	1847	1,974,304 bushels.
1843	628,967 "	1848	2,169,000 "
1844	891,894 "	1849	1,936,264 "
1845	956,860 "	1850	883,644 "
1846	1,459,594 "	1851	427,820 "

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

NICHOLAS LONGWORTH, OF CINCINNATI.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 20.

THIS gentleman, who is decidedly at the head of the vine-culturists of the United States, and who has done more perhaps than any individual in it for the promotion of a branch of industry which seeks to make us independent of foreigners, and to retain at home millions that are now annually sent abroad, deserves a place in our gallery of "useful citizens."

The Pennsylvania Horticultural Society paid a deserved tribute to Mr. Longworth a few years ago, in tendering him its thanks; and acknowledging its satisfaction that "the untiring zeal and energy with which he had for so many years, and at such great expense, prosecuted the subject of wine-making, had been crowned with so much success." The Cincinnati Society, about the same time, in referring to his "Sparkling Catawba," declared, "a more exquisitely flavored champagne it would be difficult to meet with among the most celebrated foreign brands." To this testimony we trust that it will not be amiss to add our own.

Of the 1,200 acres cultivated in grapes by 295 proprietors and tenants in and about Cincinnati, Mr. Longworth has 122 acres, which employ 27 tenants. He has also two wine cellars, and is interested in a third, and has invested in the business a capital of $100,000. Last year 75,000 bottles of Catawba were prepared at his cellars, and in the present season he expects at least 100,000 bottles.

From the numerous and invaluable papers which Mr. Longworth has contributed upon the vine culture and wine making, we extract the following, which will be found most interesting in giving an account of the origin of the business in this country, etc.:

"It is some fifty years since the attempt was made at Spring Hill, in the vicinity of Philadelphia. I believe by a society of gentlemen, under the superintendence of a foreign wine cooper. Foreign grapes were tried, and, as usual, without success. One grape only was found to suit the climate, and was the grape now known by the name of the Schuylkill muscadel, or Vevay grape. It is a native grape of Pennsylvania, and was first found on the banks of the Schuylkill River. To give the wine made from this grape reputation, it was called the Cape grape, and was said to have been obtained at the Cape of Good Hope. The undertaking proved a failure; and the next attempt was by the Swiss emigrants, at Vevay, Indiana, on the Ohio River, seventy-five miles below this city. They imported the best wine grapes of Switzerland, but found them unsuited to our climate, and hearing of the Cape grape at Spring Hill, obtained plants, and for many years cultivated this grape extensively. It is a coarse grape, but an abundant bearer, and perfectly hardy, and less subject to rot than any other grape we cultivate. From it a rough, red, hard wine was made, in consequence of their pursuing the Swiss custom of fermenting in the skins. But little wine was imported to the back woods in that day, and it met a ready sale. In a few years the importation of foreign wines increased, and our Buck-eyes and Hoosiers became proud, and the wines of Vevay became unsaleable, and were chiefly used for making of sangaree, for the manufacture of which it was preferred to any other. The cultivation languished, and I have not, for many years, heard of any of the wine being for sale. About the time they began to decline the cultivation, I commenced it, believing a good wine could be made from the same grape, by a different process of manufacture. I put a German vine dresser on a hill, on Bold Face Creek, about one mile and a half from the river, and four miles from the city. I planted, in the first instance, the Vevay grape only, gathered the grapes as soon as ripe, put them on the press as soon as gathered; and from them made a wine of the color of Madeira, and resembling Madeira of the second quality. I added from ten to sixteen ounces of sugar to the gallon of must, and, after fermentation, brandy, as is customary with Madeira. I soon after obtained the Catawba grape, and some other native grapes, from Major Adlum, of Washington City. The Catawba was the only one of them I found worthy of cultivation; and of this grape I formed, and still entertain, a high opinion, as a wine grape. In a letter to me, Major Adlum says: 'I found this grape in the garden of a German near Washington. Of its origin, I know nothing. In introducing this grape to public notice, I have done my country a greater service than I should have done, had I paid the national debt.' I entirely concur in this opinion. Most grapes do not impart their aroma to the wine, but a new one is formed by fermentation, which leads foreign wine merchants to flavor their wines. The wine from the Catawba grape retains the aroma and muscadine flavor, in all its stages. Our Germans, in the first instance, objected to this peculiar flavor; but all now unite in giving the wine from this grape a preference over the German wines. Major Adlum erred in making from this grape a sweet wine, by the addition of much sugar to the must. I saw his error, and for some years put from six to ten ounces of sugar only to the gallon of must, and the wine was suited to our palates; for at that period, we had not been accustomed to the celebrated dry Hock wines, and should have pronounced them hard cider. Our German emigrants learned us better, and we now seldom add sugar to the must; but I would still recommend it, in seasons when the grape ripens badly. When added before fermentation, I do not believe it can be distinguished from the saccharine principle in the grape. Brandy would be highly injurious to this wine, and I have never had it run into the acetous fermentation, or become ropy, which is often the case with the light wines of Europe."

The following grapes have been raised and exhibited by Mr Longworth—Ohio-Catawba, Graham, Elsinburg, Clarkson's Eastern Catawba; Indiana (of no value;) Black Fox, ditto; White Fox, do.; Piqua, do.; Herbemont; Giant Catawba; Minor's Seedling; Norton's Virginia Seedling; Improved Purple Fox; Red Fox, of no value; Virginia; Missouri; Helen; Lake; Guignard; White Seedling Catawba.

In addition to his claims to consideration as a *vine culturist*, Mr. Longworth deserves the highest praise for his efforts in behalf of the *strawberry*, which now so greatly distinguishes the markets of Cincinnati. He discovered and made public, twenty-five years ago, the secret that certain fine varieties of the strawberry are more productive in the pistillate than staminate organs, and that when beds are planted with a due proportion of staminate or male plants, say one-tenth, the crop is far more abundant, and the fruit greatly improved. Though opposed in his views at first, they came at last to be almost universally admitted. He has contributed an interesting treatise on the culture of this plant.

The grandfather of Mr. Longworth having in the Revolution adhered to the cause of the king, the family estate was confiscated, but would have been bought in by a son, who had the means in continental money, had not the father prevented, declaring that if the power of the crown fell, he would fall with it. He never reclaimed the value from the British. The mother of Mr. Longworth was a stern whig, and by the influence which it brought her, on one occasion, she obtained the release of her husband, who was a prisoner in the hands of the patriots—but who had not taken an active part in the cause of the royalists.

Nicholas Longworth was born in Newark, N. J., in 1783, but was taken at an early age to Savannah, Geo., by an elder brother, and there entered into mercantile business. The climate of Savannah not agreeing with his health, he was soon after sent back to Newark to be prepared for a course of law. In 1804 he removed to Cincinnati, and entered upon the study of the profession in the office of Jacob Burnet, Esq., then at the head of the bar of that city. In three years he was admitted to practice, and continued to do so until 1819, when he retired, investing his savings in lands in and around Cincinnati—an investment which is the secret of his present enormous fortune. A single incident is mentioned of his having received in lieu of two stills, his fee for defending a client charged with horse stealing, thirty-three acres of ground, now in the heart of Cincinnati, and valued at about two millions of dollars. What the present value of his property is, we are not informed, though his taxes in 1850 were stated at $17,000, being the largest amount paid by any individual in the United States, William B. Astor, excepted.

Mr. Longworth, though peculiar in the nature of his beneficence, has often acted with great liberality, and in general proceeds upon a system which is his own. On one occasion he returned the early kindness of his brother in Savannah by the payment of $35,000, thus releasing his property from execution; and when upon the death of that brother he was made *sole* legatee of his fortune, he at once secured to the other members of the family what he considered to be their shares.

On a late occasion he made a gift of four acres of land in the heart of the city, for the construction of an observatory, and on being charged, after the splendid structure was completed, by some unknown person with the desire of benefiting his own property in the vicinity, he offered to put up a building, equal in expense, with appropriate promenades, etc., for public use, if the individual in question would make a similar donation of four acres! Says Mr. Charles Cist, in his Sketches of Cincinnati:—"Mr. Longworth has his own ways and views in affording relief and assistance to the necessitous. That he is governed by conscientious motives, no one ought to doubt, who learns, as he easily may, that Longworth is a supernumerary township trustee, whose office is crowded at regular hours with twenty, thirty, or fifty miserable objects, whose cases he examines into, and disposes of at a cost of time and patience, which most men would, ordinarily, not submit to. Relief is then provided for, on a system which protects itself from being made a means of fostering idleness or mendicity. All this is done obviously on principle, since he must be a loser pecuniarily, as well as in precious time, by such a course.

Mr. Cist says again, and with this extract we must close our brief biography :"

"Mr. Longworth is a problem and a riddle: a problem worthy of the study of those who delight in exploring that labyrinth of all that is hidden and mysterious, the human heart, and a riddle to himself and others. He is a wit and a humorist of a high order ; of keen sagacity and shrewdness in many other respects than in money matters ; one who can be exact to a dollar, and liberal, when he chooses, with thousands ; of marked peculiarity and tenacity in his own opinions, and yet of abundant tolerance to the opinions, however extravagant, of others—a man of great public spirit, and sound general judgment. All these things rarely accompany the acquisition and the accumulation of riches.

"In addition to all this, it would be difficult to find an individual of his position and standing so perfectly free from pride—in the ordinary sense. He has absolutely none, unless it be the pride of eccentricity. It is no uncommon circumstance for men to become rich by the concentration of time, and labor, and attention, to some one object of profitable employment. This is the ordinary phase of money-getting, as closing the ear and pocket to applications for aid is that of money-saving. Longworth has become a rich man on a different principle. He appears to have started upon the calculation that if he could put any individual in the way of making a dollar for Longworth, and a dollar for himself at the same time, by aiding him with ground for a lot, or in building him a house on it—and if, moreover, he could multiply cases of the kind by hundreds, or perhaps thousands, he would promote his own interests just in the same measure as he was advancing those of others. At the same time, he could not be unconscious, that while their half was subdivided into small possessions, owned by a thousand or more individuals, his half was a vast, a boundless aggregate, since it was the property of one man alone. The event has done justice to his sagacity. Hundreds, if not thousands, in and adjacent to Cincinnati, now own houses and lots, and many have become wealthy, who would in all probability have lived and died as tenants under a different state of case."

JOHN GRIGG, OF PHILADELPHIA.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 21.

THIS gentleman's connections and relations with the South have been so large, and extend over so long a period, and he is moreover so well known to our citizens familiar with the publishing business of the country, that a few brief notices of his career will not be inappropriate under this head of our magazine.*

John Grigg, the well-known, although now retired Bookseller, of Philadelphia, began life an orphan farmer boy. A restless spirit drove him to the water, and he early exchanged the monotonous life of the farmer for the excitements of that of a sailor. The activity of the young and enterprising not unfrequently takes this direction. Amid the perils of the Bay of Biscay, and the tempests of the West Indies, he had ample opportunities by which he did not fail to profit, to become thoroughly versed in the whole art of seamanship ; a calling, than which, there is not one, perhaps, better calculated to bring out the qualities of prompt decision and self-reliance. We do not know how long his experience in reefing and steering lasted. In fact, our knowledge of the minute details of his life is not so full as we could wish. Some thirteen months of his early life were passed at Richmond, Virginia. The quickness and original force of his character, the zeal with which he pursued his studies, and resumed them when broken off, and his devotion to the mathematics, in particular, for which, at this early age, he manifested that taste and capacity which often accompany the talent for practical life and affairs, attracted the notice of the relatives with whom he lived, and led them to anticipate a bright future for the young student. The lady of the house, herself very fond of the mathematics, assisted him in his studies. But he was poor, he had his own way to make in the world; and soon leaving Richmond, he went to Ohio, eager for the fray of life. There we find him engaged in the duties of Clerk of the Court of Common Pleas and Chancery of Warren County, Ohio, with the sole charge of this responsible office. These duties he performed to the satisfaction of all, and won for himself the esteem and friendship of such men as Mr. Justice McLean, who had not then left the courts of Ohio for the place which he adorns on the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States, and of the Hon. Thomas Corwin, our distinguished Secretary of the Treasury. During the whole of Mr. Grigg's residence in Ohio, Mr. Corwin and he were intimate friends and "bosom cronies," such friends as young men are who know each other perfectly, and in some respects are alike in tastes and habits. "I can say of him," (our quotations are from a recent letter from Mr. Corwin.) "with entire confidence in the opinion, that he was from his boyhood up, through every change of place, occupation and fortune, an earnest, frank, sincere, honest man. After entering the Clerk's office, he very soon made himself master of every detail, and became in fact clerk of the court. I know he often wrote from fifteen to eighteen hours, every twenty-four, for weeks together."

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* This biography is extracted from a more elaborate one published some time ago in Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, a work which Mr. Grigg thinks should be in the hands of every merchant and in every public library in the Union. Having said this much, we should be guilty of a false modesty perhaps not to add, since Mr. Haut has mentioned the compliment to himself, that Mr. Grigg has paid the Review a similarly high one, and thinks that the people of the North would learn a good deal of southern matters, and have their views changed upon many points in which there have been sectional ill feeling, from its perusal. We mention this as the opinion of an intelligent northern gentleman, and because, whilst the South sustains every work from that quarter, we have not twenty subscribers there.

Symptoms of disease were the consequence of such habits of industry and intense application, and made change of occupation necessary. But those habits had won for him a name and character which soon enabled him to enter on a different and less harassing pursuit. Joel Scott, Esq., was at this time proprietor of a manufactory of woolen cloths, in Scott county, on the Elkhorn Creek, in Kentucky, a region remarkable for the beauty of its scenery, the excellence of its water power, and the fertility of its soil; the remoteness of the Atlantic cities, and the war prevailing at that time with England, operated as the most effectual of protections, and the woolen manufacture was a highly lucrative business in Kentucky; new proprietors commenced the manufacture of all descriptions of woolen cloths, on a large scale, and with much energy and apparent skill. It was early in 1815 when Mr. Grigg became superintendent of Mr. Scott's establishment, at Georgetown. His new situation tasked the best energies of his mind and character. He was at times placed in the most trying circumstances, and on one occasion left suddenly with the sole charge of the whole establishment upon him. But the same quickness and assiduity which made him an efficient clerk of court, made him the best of superintendents, also. The greater experience of the Old Country might be challenged to produce a wool manufacturer who knew better how to assort a fleece into five or six different qualities, or had a quicker and more practised eye to see when a thing was well done, from the washing of the wool to the finishing of the cloth.

The year 1816 brought with it still another change of residence and occupation. Mr. Scott parted from his assistant with reluctance, but his restless activity was ambitious for a wider field and higher range. He must go to the city; he must try his fortune as a merchant in Philadelphia. From country to city, an unbroken current of youthful hope, energy and character is ever setting, which purifies and renews, it is true, but too often leads to the shipwreck of weak principles and sanguine hopes. Were it not for new blood from the country, cities would grow sickly, just as citizens' children, after one or two generations, become puny and weak. But the city influence is strong, and it is an even chance whether it will corrupt, or the country influence will purify. Hence the danger of this indiscriminate eagerness of the young to rush into city life. But if they all brought with them the same power to resist, and the same power to do for themselves, which John Grigg carried with him to Philadelphia, this tendency would be less to be regretted. It was his intention to enter a wholesale dry-goods house. But the year 1816 was one of general embarrassment. No opening presented. Like Franklin, before him, Mr. Grigg found himself in the city of Philadelphia, comparatively without means, without employment, with no outward support, but upheld by that sure inward resource of *self-reliance*, which is the centre of moral gravity. However, he was about giving up his plan, when he made the acquaintance of Mr. B. Warner, a bookseller, of very extensive business. Mr. Warner seems to have been a man of quick appreciation of character. He at once conceived a high opinion of Mr. Grigg's character and abilities. Mr. Warner was a *Friend*, and a friend indeed, in every sense, he proved to his young clerk, who at once entered his house, and justified the flattering opinion of his employer, by the characteristic energy and clearness of head which he brought to bear upon his new pursuit. Versatility is said to be an American characteristic, and few men have possessed it more strongly than Mr. Grigg. The readiness of adaptation to new pursuits, situations and emergencies, which made him efficient in each of the varied callings with which within a few years he had already made himself familiar, marked his career through life. It was his favorite opinion that all difficulties can be overcome by perseverance—that no man or boy can tell what he can make of himself until he tries. He made it a rule of life when difficulties appeared, to clap on double energy, and like Hercules, to rely upon the strength of his own shoulders to get the wagon out of the ditch.

He had need of all his own resources of character in the calling which he had adopted. But it was the last change of pursuit he was to make. He had found a business whose range of operations suited his abilities and ambition. The difficulties of the bookselling business are said to be peculiarly great. This is the consenting opinion of those familiar with it; and it is obvious how much tact and discrimination, sagacity and careful study of the public taste, it requires. So connected is it with literature, that a mistaken literary judgment may involve the most serious business consequences. Dazzling projects, which on paper give assurance of brilliant results, when put in execution prove worse than failures. It was not, however, until a few years later, when he had worked his way up to the higher walks of his business, that these qualities were called out into most active exercise. But the same energy which was displayed in the more responsible station to which he soon attained, marked his performance of the humbler duties of a clerk. This devotion, this determination to do "whatever his hands found to do" "with all his might," whether as clerk, or as principal, as banker, manufacturer, clerk of court, or publisher, is the secret of his success —of all success in business. The late William Gray, of Boston, in his days of opulence, was tauntingly reminded that he had once been a drummer. His quick retort contains volumes of the practical philosophy taught by such lives as his and Mr. Grigg's. "Did'nt I drum well, though?"

Mr. Grigg has always been remarkable for strength of memory. One of his feats at this time, was to learn the name of every book in the store, its price, and the place where to find it, so that he was able, at once, to lay his hand upon it when called for. It was thus he commenced his clerkship. In a few days, this readiness and aptness began to excite the jealousy of an older clerk, since deceased, who was nominally above the last comer; and his own emulation was chafed at a superiority in position in the establishment of those who were inferior to him in fact. To avoid these unpleasant feelings, Mr. Warner proposed a journey to Virginia, for the purpose of settling the affairs of a firm in that state, with which his house was connected, and which had been dissolved by the death of one of the partners. This commission Mr. Grigg gladly undertook. How successfully he performed this duty, every duty belonging to the new calling which was to be the business of his life, is best shown by the testimony left by Mr. Warner, on his death, a few years after. A memorandum was found attached to his will, which contained a legacy more valuable than gold—a legacy of *golden opinion*. Taking into view, the possibility of his business being continued after his death, he thinks "one or two young men in whom confidence can be reposed" might be found to take charge of it, and adds, "I consider John Grigg as possessing a *peculiar* talent for the bookselling business. *Very industrious*, and from three years observation, (the time he has been employed in my business,) I have found nothing in his conduct to raise a doubt in my mind of his possessing correct principles." Praise like this is the noblest of rewards, the most stirring of incentives.

The executors of Mr. Warner could not do otherwise than confide to one in whom he expressed such high confidence, and so explicitly pointed out as his successor, the settlement of the affairs of the firm. Nor was this a slight undertaking. The business of the house had been immense: connected with it were numerous agencies and branches, it had dealings with various houses at the South and West, and the settlement of it rendered frequent journeyings necessary. During one of these journeys, an incident occurred which is too characteristic of the days of stage-coach traveling, and of the determined energy of Mr. Grigg's character to be omitted. He was at Charleston. It was the latter part of December, 1825, and by Christmas day he must be in Philadelphia. He pushed forward, traveling day and night; at Baltimore, the steamboat which usually connected, was found to have left off running, and the travelers were forced to take to the mail coach. But every seat was full when Mr. Grigg arrived; there was no alternative for the determined traveler, weary and excited as he was by incessant journeying for seven long days and sleepless nights, but to ride outside with the driver. The day, or rather the night, was cold, the air was full of sleet, the road miry. But to the driver's seat he mounted, and pushed on. At Havre de Grace another driver took the reins, who was unacquainted with the road; it was long after dark, and the "insides," who began to be fearful of their necks as the coach plunged and tossed in the mire, grew clamorous for putting back until morning. But Mr. Grigg was determined that the stage should go-a-head, and be in Philadelphia by Christmas day, and besides, they carried the mails, and a public conveyance must not be delayed! So he procured a lantern, and going before the coach, piloted the travelers through the darkness and mire, for about two miles. Finally mounting the box again, he took the reins into his own hands, and daylight saw the delighted travelers, arrived at Elkton, and well on their way. They at once admitted him to a seat inside, upon their knees. And early on Christmas morning Mr. Grigg was in Philadelphia.

He was now once more without fixed occupation, but not, as before, without means; above all, not without experience, which is better than money. He had not only saved something, but had mastered the details of a difficult branch of business. For an instant, however, Mr. Grigg seems to have been undetermined what course to pursue. Conversing at this time with a friend, Joseph Cushing, Esq., of Baltimore, he explained his situation, and laid before him his prospects. "Rely on yourself," said his friend, "you cannot fail to succeed. You will yet astonish yourself and the book trade of the whole country." The next day Mr. Grigg hired a store, with lodging apartments back of it, and commenced the business of book selling on his own account.

Thus prudently and carefully did he set about the fulfilment of this prophecy. How brilliantly it has been verified, the entire book trade of the country can testify. Upon the same spot where he began, Mr. Grigg conducted his business with ever increasing success and widening range of operations. The genius and enterprise of its head pervaded the house, and all its operations were conducted with that unity of aim and effect, which a commanding mind knows how to give to the most multifarious details, and to impress upon all who come within its range. Nor was the influence of this almost military promptness and efficiency of operation confined to his own house. Mr. Grigg became noted among his brethren for his peculiar faculty. A nervous energy, a rapidity of calculation and resolution, a promptness to act, marked his entire course.

The change which Mr. Grigg effected in the book trade of the country, has been described as nothing less than a revolution. Constable, the famous bookseller of Edinburgh, Sir Walter Scott's publisher and partner, was fond of calling himself the "Napoleon of the realms of print," a compliment to himself hardly justified, except by the boldness, bordering on rashness, of his operations. Mr. Grigg's friends had better reason, in many respects, for bestowing, as they were sometimes in the habit of doing, the same honor upon him, for to boldness and rapidity he united cool and clear judgment, the quick eye to look *a-head before going a-head*.

Through the financial tempest of 1836 and 1837, Mr. Grigg steered his course safely and successfully, and although engaged in a business of vast extent during the whole perilous financial period from 1833 to 1840, was among the few who suffered little by the revulsions of the times. He was largely interested in stocks and other species of property most liable to be affected. But he saw from afar the dangers which were threatening the business of the country, and his quick foresight early anticipated the inevitable issue of the unequal contest between the government and the United States Bank. He promptly took measures to change his investments from stock to real estate, and became the owner of large properties in Mississippi and Illinois, as well as in Philadelphia. When the shock of the crisis came, his foot was on the *ground*, and, he stood firm.

Mr. Grigg has not, we thus see, entirely confined himself to the line of his peculiar business. Men of wealth never show a truer public spirit, than when they step forward to aid with hand and purse a great public enterprise in its infancy. Public works, are, for the most part, anything but attractive investments, at the outset, and it is oftener a case of self-sacrifice than of self-interest to invest money in new projects of this kind. Mr. Grigg was an early and prompt friend and large subscriber to the stock of the Pennsylvania Rail-road, a work of the same interest and importance to Pennsylvania, as the Erie Rail-road is to the State of New-York, and the national value of all these great works connecting the sea-board with the West, need not to be enlarged upon. We have already referred to the circumstances under which Mr. Grigg was induced to invest largely in real estate. Philadelphia is indebted to him for numerous elegant dwellings which adorn her beautiful streets. Besides the real estate investments in Mississippi, in 1836, he entered extensive tracts of the public lands in the Sangamon country, Illinois, of which he has from time to time sold large portions. In his dealings with the numerous purchasers of his land, Mr. Grigg's uniform fairness and liberality have made him universally popular, an exception to the general rule as to non-resident land-owners, who are by no means favorites at the West.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

LAFITTE.

PONTOTOC, MISS., 20*th May*, 1852.

MR. EDITOR,—In common with the readers of the "Review," I have noticed with lively interest, the controversy which has sprung up in relation to the fact of the celebrated Lafitte's identity, and the still more important, and to Americans, more interesting fact, of his participation in the battle of New Orleans. This is a matter about which there should be no conflict of history. Lafitte was there, or he was not there. History should assert either the one fact or the other with entire certainty. And without presuming on my own part to determine the point affirmatively or negatively, I will communicate the following incident, merely as a matter of evidence to give conviction or confirmation to the opinions of others. The fact to which I allude was communicated to me in a private conversation, by the late Robert L. Cobb, Esq., of Columbia, Tennessee. Here a question may be suggested as to who was Robert L. Cobb? This question can be very easily and satisfactorily solved. Robert L. Cobb, in the early part of his life, was a physician, and at the time of the battle of New-Orleans, was surgeon to one of the regiments which composed General Coffee's brigade. He was a scientific, skilful, and meritorious gentleman in that department. After the war of 1812, he prepared himself for the bar, and located in Columbia, Tennessee, where he died some years since, if I am correctly informed. As a lawyer, he was learned, able, and gifted, and for many years he had an extensive and lucrative practice; while, as a man of integrity, probity, and honor, no man ever stood higher in that intelligent and public spirited community. But to the incident—it is this. A short time previous to the battle of New-Orleans, General Coffee's brigade was stationed at Fort Adams, which, I think, was not far from the vicinity of Baton Rouge, in Louisiana. And whilst there, were greatly destitute of the necessary military stores, such as hats, shoes, blankets, and comfortable clothing of every description. Whilst in that condition, General Coffee, from some source or other, received information that one or more of Lafitte's "warehouses" had been discovered among the bayous and passes in the bottom beyond the river from his camp, filled with such articles as he needed for his soldiers. General Coffee determined that if this information was correct, as Lafitte was then an outlaw, with his hand against all nations, that he would rifle his warehouses, and appropriate such articles as he needed to the use of his troops. For the purpose of ascertaining the truth of this information, General Coffee ordered Captain Gordon's company of spies—a celebrated company—to leave the camp as secretly as possible, and go with the individual, who brought the information, a guide, and ascertain the truth or falsity of his statements. This order was given about 11 o'clock A. M., and Gordon's company left the camp about noon. In the course of something near two hours afterwards, say about 2 o'clock in the afternoon, a runner or messenger came from General Jackson to General Coffee with the information, that the British had either appeared on the coast, or had landed, or had driven in the gun-boats on the Mississippi; and which, I will not pretend to state positively—my memory not serving me faithfully here—that he expected an attack upon the city hourly, and that he must hasten with all his available force to the defence of New-Orleans. General Coffee immediately recalled Gordon's spy company, put his brigade in motion, and hastened to General Jackson's assistance. During the busy scenes that followed, leading a life of constant activity, excitement, and peril, General Coffee soon forgot all about the expedition of Gordon's spies upon Lafitte's warehouses until it was recalled to his mind afterwards in a very peculiar and significant manner. General Coffee had not been thrown with Lafitte before, nor during the battle of the eighth. But they met at a ball that was given by the citizens of New-Orleans to the officers of General Jackson's army shortly after the battle was over. Coffee did not arrive at the hall till late and most of the officers of his brigade had preceded him, and were standing about the rooms when he arrived, noticing every object of interest and notoriety which presented itself, "beautiful women and brave men," etc., etc. Among those objects of interest was the celebrated Lafitte — the Barratarian pirate. Mr. Cobb was standing but a few feet from Lafitte when General Coffee entered, and witnessed an introduction which occurred between them. When Lafitte's name was called, Coffee immediately recollecting that he had been associated with Lafitte's name in some way or other, in endeavoring to recall the circumstances to his mind paused, and exhibited a good deal of hesitation in his manner. This, Lafitte, who appeared to be on the alert for slights, noticed, and attributing Coffee's hesitation to a repugnance of recognizing him as a gentleman on account of his previous reputation, immediately drew himself up with haughtiness, and in a hasty manner advanced a step or two, and exclaimed, with peculiar emphasis, "Lafitte, the pirate!" Coffee immediately discovering the error he had committed, advanced to Lafitte, and taking him by the hand, apologized for the tardy manner in which he recognized the introduction, and explained the cause of his hesitation.

This is the incident related to me by Mr. Cobb, as having occurred under his own observation. He related it to me as being true, and I believe him incapable of telling a falsehood about anything. He farther informed me that it was as well understood, according to his recollection, that Lafitte was a participant in the battle of New-Orleans as that General Jackson was there. He added, "I did not see him in the battle, nor did I see General Jackson in the battle, but I know he was there; so I know that Lafitte was there, and I saw him afterwards." This conversation occurred in Columbia, Tennessee, in the month of January, 1840. He, moreover, gave me the description of Lafitte's person, but it was by way of comparison to a gentleman then living in Columbia, and as the impression made on my mind as to Lafitte's personal appearance, is associated with that individual, the description of Lafitte might, in truth, turn out to be that of another man were I to attempt it.

I have thrown off this letter hastily and crudely, and it is at your disposal. If you think the facts, relative, worthy of publication, you can publish it; but individually, I have no wish to appear in print. Very respectfully, W. H. K.

PROVISION FOR THE POOR AND DESTITUTE.

THOUGH we will not undertake to say exactly how far the plan proposed by our correspondent for the amelioration of the poor, and the prevention of crime may be practicable, there can be no doubt that great room for reform still exists in the systems of alms-houses and houses of refuge throughout the country. Mr. Vethake, in his able work upon political economy, after reviewing the subject of *pauperism* in detail, and the plans for its relief, arrives at very nearly the same conclusions with our correspondent. Indiscriminate relief increases the evil it is intended to remedy. The pauper must support himself by his labor. If this labor be without other consideration than mere support, all incentive to exertion is removed, and moral advancement prevented. If it be paid for at the *full prices*, the half of society will be in no small danger of taking to the alms-house, and the state will become, in the event, the great monopolist of labor. The subject, however, is full of difficulties, and has baffled philanthropy in every age of the world.

NEW-ORLEANS, *July* 10, 1852.

J. D. B. DE BOW, ESQ.

Knowing the desire you have of giving publicity to all subjects of importance to our country and city, I have taken the liberty of submitting to your consideration the plan of a home for the destitute, which I have submitted to our city councils for their approval and adoption; by which I think it has been shown a half million dollars will be saved to this city annually, if it is established. It has been also shown that in Massachusetts and New-York, where the alms-house and house of refuge system has been fairly tested in the last ten years, by the expenditure of millions of dollars in those institutions, the evil (pauperism) which they were intended to alleviate or cure, has increased 28 and 30 per cent. per annum—thus establishing beyond controversy the utter uselessness of that system.

The home, here proposed, is intended to operate upon the pride and interest of the destitute; also to develop and cultivate whatever good qualities may remain to him, by removing every possible cause of degradation from him, causing him to pay in full for all the privileges he may enjoy by his labor rendered to the institution, the only means in his possession.

PLAN.

Let the council provide buildings, work, rooms, &c., &c., adapted to the wants of the destitute, furnish with necessary substantial furniture, bedding, clothing, provisions, tools, and implements, with a small stock of raw material to commence operations; also, if possible, a sufficient amount of land to raise stock and vegetables for consumption.*

Call this place Home, simply HOME.

Here let it be known that every man, woman, and child over ten years could at all times procure the absolute necessaries of life for their labor, by simply knocking at the door, answering questions of statistical importance only, their answers to be taken in writing, and signed by the applicant.

The liberty of the inmates to be restricted only whilst they are indebted to the Home, in order to secure it from loss by imposition.

A rigid moral deportment must be required from all the inmates, but no religious dogmas should be introduced or forced upon them against their will, for reasons which all can appreciate as well as I can explain.

Should the inmates desire to remain longer than is necessary to repay the institution for all the privileges received, they should be allowed a safe, low, but *not unreasonable compensation* for their extra labor, to be paid in cash on leaving, or at such other times as may be found convenient and desirable.

A rigid account must be kept with each and all of the inmates. Also a correct statistical record of all facts important to be known, together with a register of the conduct and deportment of each individual; and in addition, a strictly honest administration of the finances of the institution. From all these, reliable data of the utility of such institutions can at any time be obtained. Correct detailed reports should be made public quarterly to the world.

A resident superintendent and secretary are the only officers who must necessarily receive salaries, as all the foremen and under superintendents can be selected from among the inmates, and be allowed a small increased compensation for superior merit. The total expense of the institution can and should be derived from the product of the labor of the inmates, also a small excess sufficient merely to extend its influence if deemed necessary, but nothing beyond that should be required from it, else it might become a money-making concern, and a monopoly of associated labor of the most odious kind in the hands of a few designing men.

To guard against such a contingency, the control of the Home should be given to citizens of known respectability, benevolence, and capability; to be elected annually by the boards of council, as well as the superintendent and commissioners of the New-Orleans Home. The superintendent should be ex-officio president of that board, and have the casting vote in case of a tie.

A general system of moral, mechanical, and industrial instruction should be inculcated, and that prominent republican axiom, "that useful labor is ennobling to man," should also be forcibly impressed upon the minds of the inmates.

From such an institution, so established, the most striking results which may be reasonably expected are:

1st. The annihilation of absolute destitution, and the vast amount of suffering resulting from it. 2d. A decrease of crime produced by destitution amounting to 50 per cent., in the opinion of the author. 3d. The gradual abolition of alms-houses, houses of refuge, prisons, and penitentiaries. And a saving of enormous expenses attending those establishments. 4th. Additional security to property, and consequent reduction of premiums on insurance. 5th. Additional security to life, which cannot be represented by mere dollars and cents. 6th. A saving of much of the money and property now forcibly abstracted by larceny, buglary, fraud, &c.; as also most of that now destroyed by that terrible crime, arson. 7th. A further saving of all money now abstracted by beggars. 8th. A further saving of all the expenses of watching, arresting, keeping, and convicting this class of criminals. And, 9th, A moral elevation of their character, worth more than the total cost of the home. 10th. The institution will relieve us of this class, and pay all the expense. It is of universal application. I remain, dear sir, your much obliged and obedient servant,

W. H. HUTCHINGS.

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* The Hon. James H. Caldwell has informed me that he was so firmly convinced of its practicability, utility, and necessity, that he would give 30 acres of land to the city in or near Bouligny for its use, whenever the city made suitable appropriations for the erection of the necessary buildings. This is practical benevolence of the highest order, yet only such as might have been expected from so pure a philanthropist.

NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY.

It affords us great pleasure to announce the formation of such a society in Washington city, under auspices which are likely to be successful. It has always been our desire to see the end accomplished, and we have on every proper occasion given it encouragement. At some personal sacrifices we endeavored to reach Washington to take part in the organization, as soon as the call of the Maryland and other societies was made public, and happily succeeded.

The first project of a national agricultural association was introduced by Solon Robinson, the well known agricultural writer and editor, in 1841, and a meeting of the friends of the measure was held at the Patent Office, by the invitation of the commissioner, Mr. Ellsworth. Mr. Robinson was called to the chair, and J. F. Callan and John A. Smith, appointed secretaries. Several resolutions were adopted, and afterwards a constitution was framed, which we now have before us, resembling in many of its features the present constitution of the society. A large number of gentlemen from all parts of the United States were nominated upon the committees.

The revival of this useful project (1852) should be hailed by every true friend of agriculturein the Union. In inducing unity of action, it will develop great results. For the first time the agricultural interests will, as they should, be consolidated. It will be done, too, without the objectionable feature of an agricultural department of government. The necessity for such a department will be superceded by a national agricultural society. Such a society, through the state and county societies, can be made the great centre of agricultural knowledge. It can embody and condense the reports of constituent societies at home, as well as of all foreign societies, publishing them in serial volumes. It will be always completely informed of the agricultural movements in every part of the country, and possessed of its statistics. The expenses incurred may be made up from three sources—contributions of individual members, contributions from state societies, and special appropriations from government. These last may be better applied in this way, than as at present to the agricultural department of the Patent Office. They may be made to the Smithsonian Institute for the purpose, and the National Agricultural Society be attached to the same important institution, as recommended by us several years ago. We believe in this shape the measure is soon to be brought into Congress by General Rusk, of Texas, and that the small sum which is asked will meet with no objection.

The late meeting at Washington was attended by delegates from eleven or twelve states. The most distinguished agricultural gentlemen were present—among others, the Hon. Daniel Webster, Hon. T. J. Rusk, Hon. S. A. Douglas, Governor Steele, of New-Hampshire, &c., &c.

OFFICERS OF THE CONVENTION:

President.
Marshall P. Wilder, Mass.
Vice-Presidents.
Henry Wagner, N. Y.
Frederick Watts, Penn.
Hunter, Penn.
Chas. B. Calvert, Md.
Geo. W. Nesmith, N. H.
John A. Throckmorton, Va.
H. K. Burgwyn, N. C.
T. J. Rusk, Texas.
J. D. Doty, Wis.

Secretaries.
Wm. S. King, R. I.
B. P. Johnson, N. Y.
J. D. B. De Bow, La.
J. A. Warder, Ohio.

PRESIDENT'S SPEECH.

"The occasion which has called us together is of a most important character, for it has for its object the advancement of an art coeval with the existence of the human race—an art which has sustained all past generations, from which we derive our daily food and our clothing, and which is destined through future ages to yield sustenance to the myriad millions who are to come after us—an art, too, which lies at the very foundation of individual and national wealth and prosperity—which employs eighteen millions of our population, and nearly four-fifths of the capital of this fair land. We are an agricultural people—our habits and tastes are moral, and I hope we shall never cease to be such. Our country contains every variety of soil, and is capable of producing most of the agricultural products of the temperate and torrid zones. We have capital and population sufficient to develop our vast resources. American genius is adequate to any undertaking, and with a suitable application of science to this art, a wise division of labor, and proper governmental aid, there is no reason why American agriculture may not maintain a successful competition with that of any other country in the great markets of the world. The progress of agriculture in the United States has been comparatively slow; but I rejoice that a new era has commenced—that the good seed which was planted by the Father of his Country, and which has been watered by thousands of other eminent agriculturists, has at last taken root, and that in our day we are to realize the bright visions which animated their hopes. Much of this progress is the result of individual enterprise, and the labors of the agricultural press, but the mainspring has been voluntary association—the power which has achieved such wonders in the social, political, and religious world, in our day. These have opened the way for this convention. Individual enterprise can accomplish much, but associated efforts much more, and we meet to avail ourselves of its mighty influence. At no period in the history of our country has there been such an assembly collected for the purpose of considering those objects for which we are brought together, and there has been no opportunity which is so favorable to the interests of the farmer. Permit me, again, gentlemen, to tender you my thanks for the distinction you have conferred upon me, and to say that in the course of our deliberations I may, with your permission, participate in your debates."

COMMITTEE ON CONSTITUTION.

The committee was finally appointed, consisting of Messrs. Holkham, of Maryland; Douglas, Illinois; J. A. King, New-York; Mallory, Kentucky; Dawson, Georgia; French, Massachusetts; Steele, New-Hampshire; Thurston, Rhode Island; Hubbard, Connecticut; Stevens, Vermont; Flwyn, Pennsylvania; Calvert, Maryland; Campbell, Ohio; Hancock, New-Jersey; Callan, District of Columbia; G. W. P. Custis, Virginia; Burgwyn, North Carolina; Taylor, Alabama; De Bow, Louisiana; Spencer, Indiana; Bell, Tennessee; Weston, Wisconsin; Pickhard, Maine; John McLane, California; Seaman, Michigan; Rusk, Texas.

CONSTITUTION.

Sec. 1.—The name of this association shall be "The United States Agricultural Society."

MEMBERS—DUES.

Sec. 2.—The society shall consist of all such persons as shall signify to any officer of the society a wish to become a member, and who shall pay two dollars to the treasurer of the society, and a like sum annually thereafter; of delegates from the state agricultural societies in the states and territories and District of Columbia, who may be appointed to attend the annual and other meetings of the society, and who shall pay the like sum, and also of such honorary members as the society may seem fit to elect. Each member shall be entitled to receive a journal or publication of said society, containing an account of its proceedings, and such additional matter as shall be deemed worthy of publication, free from any expense except postage. Twenty-five dollars shall entitle one to the privilege of life membership and exempt him from any annual taxation.

OFFICERS.

Sec. 3.—The officers of this society shall be a President, a Vice-President, from each state and territory in the Union, and from the District of Columbia, a Treasurer, a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, and a Board of Agriculture, to consist of three members from each state, territory, and the District of Columbia, to be appointed by the Executive Committee of the societies of such states, territories, &c., and where there be no such state societies, to be appointed by the Executive Committee of this society. The President of the society shall be *ex officio*, a member and President of this board and of the Executive Committee.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

The President shall have a general superintendence of all the affairs of the society. In case of his death or inability to discharge the functions of this office, the Board of Agriculture shall select a Vice-President to act in his stead, and clothed with the same power, and shall perform the same duties as the President until the next annual election.

Vice-Presidents.—It shall be their duty to advance all the objects of the association in their several districts; to explain to agriculturists the character and objects of this association, and endeavor to obtain their co-operation and support; to watch the advance of practical agriculture, and to make known the results of the same, by report or otherwise, from year to year.

Board of Agriculture.—It shall be the duty of this Board to watch the interests of agriculture, as they are or may be affected by the legislation of the country, and to make such reports, memorials, and recommendations as may advance the cause of agriculture, and to promote and diffuse agricultural knowledge; to examine, and, when necessary, report upon the practicability of establishing agricultural schools, colleges, and model farms; to set forth the advantages of agricultural and geological surveys, and to show the importance of the application of science to agriculture; to represent through their reports the relation of our agriculture to that of foreign countries, and to endeavor to obtain information from such countries; to point out the advantage of introducing any new staples, seeds, and plants; to obtain, so far as practicable, annual statistical returns of the condition of agriculture throughout the different states—all which information shall be published by said society, and form part of its transactions.

The Executive Committee shall transact the general business of the society; it shall consist of five persons, who shall designate the time and place for exhibitions, regulate the expenditures, and take such supervisory charge of the business of the society as may best promote its interests. This body shall elect its own chairman. Three members shall constitute a quorum.

Treasurer.—The Treasurer shall keep an account of all moneys, and shall pay bills only after they have been audited by the Corresponding and Recording Secretaries, and a member of the Executive Committee, and countersigned by the President of the Society or the Chairman of the Executive Committee.

Corresponding Secretary—The duty of this officer shall be to correspond with persons interested in agriculture; at each stated meeting he shall read such portions of his correspondence as may be of general interest; and it shall be his duty to carry out and advocate the views of the Board of Agriculture, in obtaining, arranging, and publishing any information they may desire to have laid before the agricultural community.

The Recording Secretary shall keep a record of the minutes of the society, and of its Executive Committee.

Sec. 4.—The annual meetings of the society shall be held at the city of Washington, on the first Wednesday of February in each year, when all the officers of the society for the ensuing year, shall be elected by ballot. The Executive Committee, however, shall be competent, with the approbation of the society, to appoint occasional meetings to be held at other points. Fifteen members shall constitute a quorum for business.

Sec. 5.—This constitution may be altered at any annual meeting by a vote of two-thirds in attendance, provided not less than fifty be present.

OFFICERS OF THE SOCIETY—1852–3.

President—Marshall P. Wilder, Mass.

Vice-Presidents—Ezekiel Howe, Maine; George W. Nesmith, New-Hampshire; Henry Stevens, Barnet, Vt.; B. V. French, Mass.; Jonah Chapin, R. I.; S. D. Hubbard, Conn.; Henry Wagner, N. Y.; Thomas Hancock, N. J.; Frederick Watts, Penn.; Peter F. Causey, Del.; W. D. Bowie, Md.; George W. P. Custis, Va.; H. K. Burgwyn, N. C.; Thomas Witherspoon, N. C.; Thos. Stocks, Ga.; R. Jones, Ala.; Alex. H. Begens, Mass.; A. B. Roman, La.; F. Kinsman, Ohio; R. Mallory, Ky.; Dr. J. Shelby, Tenn.; John L. Robinson, Indiana; S. A. Douglas, Ill.; David R. Atchinson, Missouri; T. B. Flournoy, Ark.; James L. Congar, Mich.; Dr. Simmons Baker, Florida; T. A. Rusk, Texas; W. F. Coolbaugh, Iowa; James D. Doty, Wis.; Lilburn W. Boggs, Cal.; J. F. Callan, District of Columbia; S. M. Baird, New-Mexico; Alexander Ramsay, Minnesota; Joseph Lane, Oregon; Joseph L. Hayes, Utah.

Executive Committee.—C. B. Calvert, M. D., Maryland; J. A. King, N. York; Dr. A. L. Elwyn, Penn.; W. B. Newton Virg.; J. D. Weston, Wisconsin.

Recording Secretary.—R. C. Walker.

Treasurer.—William Selden.

Cor. Secretary.—Daniel Lee.

We trust that all persons in the country, friendly to this society, will address Dr. Lee, at Washington, a gentleman long known to the agriculturists from his connection with the "Genesee Farmer," published in New-York, as also with the Georgia Cultivator, of more recent date. He is an able and intelligent gentleman, and has been an active mover in the present organization. We shall also be happy to receive contributions upon the subject ourselves, and shall always aim to make the Review one of the organs of this as of all other great industrial movements.

After the adjournment of the Convention the Executive Committee had a meeting, in which it was resolved to publish, in pamphlet form, the proceedings, together with an abstract of the agricultural statistics of the United States, furnished through the courtesy and enlightened public spirit of Mr. Kennedy, the intelligent head of the census department.

SOME EDITORIAL NOTES.

A bill has passed one of the houses of Congress, appropriating $75,000 towards removing the obstructions at the mouth of the Mississippi. This is a measure of obvious interest to the whole country, and has been recommended to the attention of government for many years. The committee of the New-Orleans Chamber of Commerce are now in Washington pressing the matter. Mr. Soulé, who has had charge of the bill, has been energetic and sleepless from the beginning. The subject of a Navy Yard at New-Orleans continues to attract attention; and it happened to us to be present when a committee of our citizens, in strong and becoming terms, presented the subject to the notice of the President, and received from him a promise of attention. The Secretary of War, Mr. Conrad, and the whole Louisiana delegation were present, endorsing and advocating, as good citizens and legislators they should, the measure.

The tax of $3,500,000 for rail-road purposes has been voted by the property holders of New-Orleans by an overwhelming and almost unprecedented majority. Was ever revolution so extraordinary effected in so short a time? and was ever hope brighter for the future of any city? We retract everything we have ever said against the enterprise of New-Orleans. Its citizens have taken a new departure. With the will, and the financial means, the rail-roads to Nashville, to the mouth of the Ohio, and to the Trinity in Texas, may be regarded as fixed facts. Already we hear the whistle of the locomotive.

A bill has lately passed the United States House of Representatives donating to the old states 150,000 acres of land to each congressional district, and to the new states amounts varying from one to two millions of acres for rail-road purposes, &c. This will be a great aid to the states of Louisiana and Mississippi in their present enterprises, as well as to the other states of the south-west. Hard upon the heels of this bill comes another from Mr. Rusk in the Senate, appropriating a breadth of sixty miles of land for the construction of a road to the Pacific, terminating on the Mississippi not north of Memphis, and crossing at El Paso. A provision is made in the bill for a Missouri branch. This bill or a similar one, or Mr. Whitney's, it is thought will pass during the present Congress. The time has certainly come for action, and we unhesitatingly give our support to either. After years of probation and herculean labor, Mr. Whitney will yet live to see achieved his great idea.

Memucan Hunt, of Texas, is now at the North organizing a company for the construction of the Central Rail-road from Galveston to Red River; a work eminently deserving the attention of the people of that state. We cannot learn if any action is being taken under the charter from the Sabine to the Trinity.

GAYARRE'S HISTORY OF LOUISIANA.

We have had the pleasure of perusing some of the sheets of the second volume of this work, which is based upon the documents lately obtained from Spain, and furnishes the first full and reliable history of the Spanish dominion in Louisiana. In our next number we shall discuss the volume at large, and make some most interesting extracts. A sense of justice to Mr. Gayarre compels us to make one or two notes here, however, upon an article which lately appeared in the Literary Messenger, at Richmond. The first manuscripts obtained from France were a compilation by Mr. Magne, and were purchased by Gov. Mouton for $1,000, at the recommendation of Mr. Gayarre. On the same recommendation and application, and by the exertion of personal influence, the legislature was induced to copy the Spanish papers. We desire that Mr. Gayarre should have the merit to which he is eminently entitled, and which in the Richmond article he does not receive.

NEW EDITION OF THE REVIEW.

We beg our friends to send on their orders for the condensed edition of the Review, the prospectus of which appears in another column. It will be published in the time indicated, and we are incurring large expense in the confidence that our efforts will meet with a liberal support. The work will be valuable in every section of the Republic, and will be a cheap addition to the standard libraries of every citizen. We trust that all of our subscribers who have not preserved or obtained the back numbers will order the new edition. We have still a few complete sets, in 12 volumes, of the old edition for those who prefer them; and we can supply the back numbers to make up sets when desired, and will have them bound at low rates. Every subscriber should preserve and bind his numbers.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

1. *The Life and Letters of Barthold George Niebuhr;* with Essays on his Character and Influence. By the Chevalier Bunsen, and Professors Brandis and Loebell. Harper & Brothers New-York. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans. Pp. 563.

The present publication is mainly a translation from a large German work, entitled "Lebensnachrichten uber Barthold George Nebuhr," which was written chiefly by Madame Hensler, the sister-in-law of this distinguished scholar and historiographer. Those who cannot read the original will find here a store of rich and valuable information, such as the memoirs of few men supply, upon subjects of the highest practical utility and importance. The life of such a man as was Niebuhr, could not be otherwise than interesting to all who love to contemplate humanity in its highest state of development, and under aspects in which it is exhibited to excellent advantage.

The larger portion of the book is taken up with letters written by the subject of the biography, only so much text being added as was found necessary to unite these into one complete and perfectly intelligible whole. "The aim of the work," says Madame Hensler, "is simply biographical; to communicate whatever can throw light upon his (Niebuhr's) natural capacities and disposition, his mental development, his studies, his mode of thought, his views of life, the state of art and literature; his relations as a citizen, a friend, and a member of the domestic circle; his large and profound sympathies; his keen sense of the noble and beautiful; his zeal for justice and truth; and, not less, his faults and weaknesses; for these, too, neither ought nor needed to be glossed over."

Only about half of the letters given in the "Lebensnachrichten" have been translated, and presented to us in this volume, none of those written on learned subjects being inserted.

2. *Cosmos:* A Sketch of a Physical Description of the Universe. By Alexander Von Humboldt. Vol. IV. New-York: Harper & Brothers. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans. Pp. 230.

Alexander Von Humboldt is well known among the reading community as one of the most distinguished scholars of the present age. His Cosmos has been received by the scientific world with the highest commendation, for its completeness, accuracy, and well-digested views of the topics on which it treats. The Universe, in its physical aspects, is the grand subject which here engages the pen of one of the most noted of scientific travelers. Humboldt is now more than eighty years of age, yet his mental powers remain as vigorous as ever. Whatever topic he treats, he pours upon it from the rich storehouse of his mind a copious flood of light.

The translation from the original German is executed by E. C. Otte and B. H. Paul, as was that of the former volumes of the Cosmos, issued by the Harpers.

3. *The Life and Works of Robert Burns.* Edited by Robert Chambers. Vol. II. Harper & Brothers: New-York. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan. Pp. 317.

Others have written memoirs of the "sweet poet of nature," but none upon the plan here followed. The works and life are here intermingled in such a way, that the one is made a complement of the other, The poems are given in chronological order, the circumstances under which they were written being fully detailed, in close connection, in the accompanying life and letters of the poet. In this way, the history both of the poet and of the man is carried on simultaneously, the outward and the inward being blended, so as to form a complete representation. Each part throws a light upon the other, without which each would be destitute of half of its life and interest.

The preceding volume commences with the birth of the poet; two more are yet to appear before the assigned limit of the whole work will have been reached. The work, we think, will be received with favor by the reading public, especially by such as admire the simplicity of Burns' style of writing, and its adherence to the natural and unaffected in composition. Some of his lyrics cannot be surpassed in the English language.

SOUTHERN PUBLICATIONS.

Efforts are now being made to establish, in the South, a large publication house, something after the fashion of those of the Harpers' and the Appletons' of the North, but mainly devoted to the encouragement of southern authors, and the dissemination of southern books. It becomes us to consider whether this is not at least as important as the movements in favor of southern industrial advancement and progress, which are every where waking up our people into action. One or two establishments, such as we have alluded to, at the South, would have existed long ago, had an enlightened appreciation of interest been allowed to govern.

The publication house, to which we refer, is that of Walker, Richards & Co., of Charleston. These gentlemen have taken extensive quarters, which are to be still further improved and enlarged, and are preparing, with the most extensive machinery, to conduct all the operations of printing, presswork, stereotyping and binding, in a style altogether equal to any thing at the North, and upon terms equally advantageous: The works which they have already issued are Pickett's History of Alabama, Mackey's Lexicon of Free Masonry, Wellington's Summer in Europe, Simms' Golden Christmas, Mrs. Gilman's Southern Matron, Simms' Wigwam and Cabin, 2 vols., etc. The three last constitute the opening numbers of a series entitled *Popular Southern Books*, which it is intended to continue at brief intervals, in handsome style, and at low prices. Messrs. Walker & Co. are also the publishers of the Southern Quarterly Review, the Charleston Medical Journal, the Southern Literary Gazette, and the Schoolfellow periodicals, which have gained a large circulation among us. We can only give a brief notice now, of some of their publications.

1. *Mackey's Lexicon of Free Masonry.* This is a second edition, greatly enlarged and improved. It embraces a full history of the order, definition of its terms, its rites and mysteries, etc., etc. Dr. Mackey is Grand Secretary, and Lecturer of the Grand Lodge of South Carolina, Secretary General of the Supreme Council for the South, with several other D. G., H. P.'s, &c., which, not being of the initiated, we cannot be expected to understand. Such a work has hitherto been unknown in the language. We recommend it to the attention of the order everywhere.

2. *Recollections of a Southern Matron.* By Caroline Gilman. A beautiful story of southern life and manners, which has had popularity for many years, and which loses nothing of interest by time.

3. *The Golden Christmas.* By Simms. A lively and spirited tale, in the best style of the author.

4. *The Wigwam and the Cabin;* or Tales of the South. First and second series. We have read the sketches in these series with the keenest interest and relish. They depict southern life with a free and skilful hand; and the pictures of every day life on the plantations are altogether unrivaled. Here we see the negro, the driver, the overseer, and the master, as they are, and hear them speak in their own language. There is no straining after effect. Among the very finest pieces, we would mention the "Lazy Crow;" "Lucas de Ayllon;" and "Grayling; or Murder Will Out." There is nothing in southern literature which surpasses them in interest and in merit, and they are of a character to put Mr. Simms in that peculiar line among the very first of American writers. Though a southern writer, Mr. Simms is perhaps more known at the North than at home. This is wrong, and should be corrected; and in order to assist, we intend before long to furnish our readers a brief biography of the man, together with a sketch of his literary labors for the last twenty years.

THE MEDICAL COLLEGE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

It is our design at all times to notice the prominent educational institutions throughout the southern and western states, and we know of none which sustains a higher character than the medical school of Louisiana. The catalogue before us gives 186 matriculants in 1851–'52, and the wood-cut which we insert on another page gives a fair idea of the grounds and buildings. The regular course of lectures begins on Monday, 15th November, 1852, and terminates in March, 1853. More than 1,500 names are now upon the list of matriculants, and many of the graduates have acquired honorable distinction in physic and surgery. It is no small indication of the confidence of the medical profession, throughout the country, in the institution that its classes are so well attended, a confidence which the State of Louisiana has reciprocated by a most liberal endowment, as will be seen in the act we copy below.

ADMINISTRATORS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

Ex-officio.—Hon. Joseph Walker, *Governor of the State of Louisiana.*

Hon. George Eustis, *Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.*

Hon. A. D. Crossman, *Mayor of the City of New-Orleans.*

Hon. J. Walker,
" Maunsel White,
" R. C. Nicholas,
" Judge I. T. Preston,
" I. Labatut, M. D.,
Levi Pierce, Esq.,
M. M. Cohen, Esq.,
W. C. Micou, Esq.,
James Robb, Esq.,

Hon. Theodore H. McCaleb, *President of the University.*

MEDICAL FACULTY.

James Jones, M. D., *Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine.*

Warren Stone, M. D., *Professor of Surgery.*

J. L. Riddle, M. D., *Professor of Chemistry.*

A. H. Cenas, M. D., *Professor of Obstetrics, and of the Diseases of Women and Children.*

A. J. Wedderburn, M. D., *Professor of Anatomy.*

Gustavus A. Nott, M. D., *Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics.*

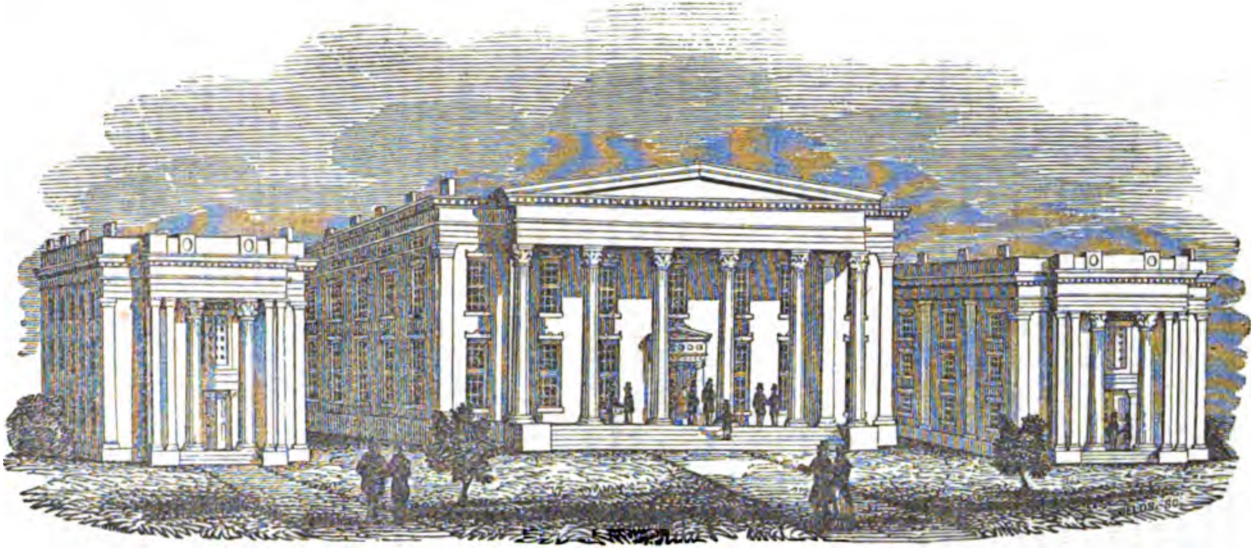
Thomas Hunt, M. D., *Professor of Physiology and Pathology.*

ACT FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF MEDICAL EDUCATION.

"Section 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana, in General Assembly convened,* That the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars be and the same is hereby appropriated for the purchase of—1st. Anatomical preparations, illustrative of human and comparative anatomy and anatomical paintings, plates and drawings. 2d. Surgical preparations, illustrative of disease, and surgical paintings, plates, drawings and instruments. 3d. Medical preparations, illustrative of disease, and medical paintings, plates and drawings. 4th. Obstetrical preparations, illustrative of the science of obstetrics, and paintings, plates and drawings, illustrative of diseases of women and children. 5th. Physiological preparations and apparatus, illustrative of the science of physiology. 6th. Preparations illustrative of general and special Pathology, paintings, plates and drawings. 7th. Pharmaceutical apparatus and preparations, illustrative of Materia Medica, and mineral and botanical preparations. 8th. Chemical and philosophical apparatus, illustrative of the science of chemistry, for the use of the Medical Department of the University of Louisiana."

All the objects contemplated in this Act will have been carried out and fulfilled by the commencement of the ensuing session of the school in November. To the agent of the state, Dr. Wedderburn, aided by his colleague, Dr. Cenas, the faculty and the public are much indebted for the prompt, faithful, and able manner in which they have discharged the responsible duties assigned them. The college has been fostered by the liberal acts of successive legislatures, and its usefulness has been extended by judicious appropriations to render complete in every department of medicine the means requisite to facilitate instruction in demonstrative and experimental science.

The Museum of Anatomy is very extensive, and a great many of the preparations are works of the most scientific artists in England, France and Italy. In Human and Comparative Anatomy, there are—1st. An entire collection of muscular preparations, from the Academy of Anatomy at Florence. They represent more than 350 separate dissections. 2d. Thibert's collection, representing the microscopic anatomy of the tissues. 3d. Auzous' valuable cabinet of Human and Comparative Anatomy. 4th. A complete cabinet of human bones, and an admirable collection in comparative Osteology. 5th. Preparations in wax—exhibiting exquisite skill in art, and knowledge in science, representing the anatomy of the



UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA, NEW-ORLEANS.

The centre is occupied by the Medical Department. Its dimensions are 100 feet front, by 104 in depth. It contains three large Lecture Rooms, each of which will accomodate more than 600 persons—a large Museum, Dissecting Rooms, etc.

viscera—of the nervous and vascular systems, and of every organ in the human body. The Pathological department is enriched by a very large collection of models from England and France, which represent diseases of the eye, and diseases of the skin. There is also a great number of specimens of the urinary and biliary calculi, many of which were obtained from Dupuytren's Museum at Paris, and many, very valuable, from the College of Surgeons, London. The rest are contributions from amongst ourselves. The models of the diseases of the skin were made by Mr. Towne, of Guy's Hospital, London. They are perfect, and each disease can be studied with their aid, as well as in nature. No other museum in the world contains these models except that of Guy's Hospital. Besides the magnificent collections purchased in Europe, the museum contains numerous anatomical preparations, made by members of the faculty, and others presented by their scientific brethren. The Pathological collection of bones is excellent, and was obtained chiefly through the labors of the faculty. The specimens of Pathological Anatomy are numerous and interesting. Every day this department is rendered more useful by additions derived from the enlightened friends of the Institution.

We extract the following in regard to CLINICAL INSTRUCTION, from the report of the Board of Administrators of the Charity Hospital.

To the Hon. Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana:

"It will appear from the accompanying document that, in the year,"

The number of patients admitted was....18,476
Do. do. discharged was...15,989
Do. do. died.............. 1,884

"This institution, the largest hospital for the reception and treatment of patients in America, presents an admirable field for the study of disease, and it is a valuable acquisition to our medical college, the professors in which are allowed every facility they desire during the course of lectures. We have ten resident students in the Hospital, who are furnished board and lodging, and are required to execute the orders of the visiting physicians and surgeons. We venture to assert, that those of them who remain their full period of two years, go forth with a better stock of practical knowledge and experience than any young physicians in the country."

The number of medical cases treated during the last year in the Hospital was about 16,000, and the surgical patients numbered nearly 2,500.

The college affords opportunities to the student unsurpassed, we believe, by any other institution in the world. The Act which established the University of Louisiana, gave the Professors of the Medical Department the use of the Charity Hospital as a school of practical instruction; and it is during the session of the school therefore in charge of the professors. There are about 1000 cases usually in the wards of the Charity Hospital. The professors visit every morning, between 8 and 10 o'clock, the Medical, Surgical, and Obstetrical wards. Hence a wide field is open for the practical study of diseases and their scientific treatment. Members of the classes of the Medical Department have *gratuitous* and *free* admission to the wards of the Hospital; they are also permitted to attend post-mortem examinations, which are incomparably greater in number here than in any other school in America or in Europe. Indeed, elsewhere, a class seldom sees an autopsy except during a lecture. Attendance on cases of labor in the Obstetrical ward is provided by the Professor of Obstetrics, from among the candidates for graduation. The Professor of Surgery performs all operations and dressings in presence of the students, in the amphitheatre of the hospital. Lectures are delivered on Wednesday and Saturday of every week, on Clinical Medicine and Surgery, and on Special Pathological Anatomy.

LECTURES.

1. The Professor of Anatomy lectures on five days of every week during the session. 2. The Professor of Physiology and Pathology lectures on five days of every week. 3. The Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine lectures on six days of every week. 4. The Professor of Surgery lectures on six days of every week. 5. The Professor of Obstetrics lectures on four days of every week. 6. The Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics lectures on four days of every week. 1. The Professor of Chemistry lectures on four days of every week. To aid in their courses of instruction the professors have every thing deemed necessary for teaching the various branches of medical science, viz: 1. Chemical and philosophical apparatus, of modern style. 2. Specimens of Materia Medica and chemical products, from Verron and Fontain, of Paris, on a plan of the College of Pharmacy, of Paris. 3. Surgical instruments, from Charrière, a complete set. 4. Paintings, plates, models, drawings, books, and special apparatus. The faculty supply almost gratuitously (i. e. at a less cost than even in Paris) subjects for dissection. The supply

always exceeds the demand of the class. But, above all these advantages, from its local position, the Medical college of Louisiana affords to the student means and opportunities of acquiring information in regard to the causes, nature and treatment of the diseases peculiar to our climate, which he cannot obtain in any northern, southern or western college in our country.

The candidate for the degree of Doctor of Medicine must be—1. Twenty-one years of age, of moral character, and must have studied medicine three years. 2. He must have attended two full courses of lectures—the last of which must have been in this institution. 3. He must write a Thesis on a medical subject, and present it to the Dean, one month before the close of the session. 4. He must be examined by the faculty. The department of Practical Anatomy is under the control of the Professor of Anatomy. The room for practical anatomy will be open from the third Monday in October to the 1st of April. The dissecting rooms are open during the whole day, from 7 A. M. to 10 P. M.; it is the duty of the Demonstrator to be constantly in attendance for the purpose of instructing the students dissecting.

The following are the terms, as published in the circular of Dr. Thomas Hunt, Dean of the Faculty.

For the ticket of each Professor.......	$15 00
For the ticket of Practical Anatomy...	10 00
Matriculation fees......................	5 00
Diploma fees...........................	30 00

☞ Fees for tickets required in advance.

Boarding for students is as cheap in New-Orleans as in any other large city in the Union.

Graduates of all respectable schools will be admitted to the course without charge.

Students who desire further information will address themselves to the Dean.

DISEASES OF THE CHARITY HOSPITAL, NEW-ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR 1851.

We annex the following statistical memoranda of the diseases treated in the hospital during last year, as a matter of general interest, worthy of preservation. The student of medicine will perceive there are few of the "ills which flesh is heir to" not included in the catalogue. Total number of cases, 18.403, including 84 negroes.

Abscess. 115 ; Abscess-mammary. 6 ; Abscess parotid gland, 1 ; Abscess psous, 1 ; Abscess liver, 4 ; Amygdalitis, 2 ; Anasarca, 30 ; Abortion, 6 ; Ascites, 38 ; Arthritis, 15 ; Apoplexy. 19 ; Albuminaria. 6 ; Amputation of finger, 4 ; Amputation of leg. 2 ; Amputation of thigh, 2 ; Amputation of arm, 1 ; Amputation of toe, 1 ; Amputation of foot, 1 ; Amputation of hand. 1 ; Age (old) 1 ; Aneurism. 1 ; Aneurism abdominal aorta. 1 ; Aneurism external iliac 1 ; Anæmia. 26 ; Asthma. 4 ; Adenitis. 1 ; Aphonia. 2 ; Amenorrhea, 11 ; Anchylosis. 1 ; Amaurosis. 3 ; Ani prolapsus, 1 ; Arachnitis. 2 ; Asphyxia. 1 ; Bronchitis. 169 ; Burn. 24 ; Blepharitis. 17 ; Blepharo-conjunctivitis, 14 ; Bubo-sympathic. 5 ; Cholera. Asiatic. 322 ; Cholera morbus. 3 ; Cholera infantum. 2 ; Contusions, 279 ; Cæcitis. 8 ; Conjunctivitis, 37 ; Conjunctivo-keratitis. 1 ; Catarrhus. 47 ; Cephalagia. 22 ; Constipation. 92 ; Chilblains, 1 ; Cardialgia. 1 ; Colica pictonum. 72 ; Colica bilioso. 17 ; Colica convulsiva. 1 ; Chills. congestive. 2 ; Congestion of brain. 19 ; Congestion of liver, 1 ; Concussion of brain. 8 ; Chlorosis. 3 ; Cirrhosis of liver. 1 ; Cephalitic congestion. 1 ; Cystitis, 5 ; Cancer. 12 ; Cataract, 3 ; Cough. hooping. 2 ; Carbuncle. 12 ; Cancrum oris, 1 ; Caries. 3 ; Convulsions, 9 ; Convulsions. puerperal, 1 ; Croup. 1 ; Cerebritis. 6 ; Comata. 1 ; Diarrhea, 811 ; Dysentery. 490 ; Debility. 402 ; Delirium tremens. 198 ; Dropsy. 38 ; Deafness, 1 ; Dementia. 6 ; Dyspepsia. 15 ; Dysmenorrhæa, 3 ; Diathesis. scrofulous. 1 ; Dislocation of thigh. 1 ; Enteritis, 83 ; Etero colitis. 11 ; Endocarditis. 7 ; Epidiymitis, 1 ; Endo-pericarditis. 2 ; Epilepsy. 12 ; Encephalitis. 2 ; Enlargement of tonsils. 1 ; Enlargement of spleen. 2 ; Erysipelas. 54 ; Erysipelas gangrenous, 1 ; Enteralgia. 8 ; Epistaxis, 1 ; Exostosis. 1 ; Ecthyma syphilitica, 9 ; Eczema. 11 ; Erythema. 1 ; Ecchymosis of the eye. 1 ; Emesis, 4 ; Eruption vesicular, 1 ; Elephanthiasis. 1 ; Fever, intermittent, 6871 ; Fever. pernicious int.. 37 ; Fever, remittent, 2366 ; Fever, malignant remit.. 4 ; Fever. sun, 4 ; Fever, adynamic. 1 ; Fever, congestive. 85 ; Fever, typhus. 1301 ; Fever typhoid. 271 ; Fever, ephemeral. 62 ; Fever, billious, 82 ; Fever. continued. 104 ; Fever, yellow, 7 ; Fever. algide. 1 ; Fever, dengue, 2 ; Fever, scarlatina. 2 ; Fever. puerperal. 1 ; Fracture of leg. 25 ; Fracture of arm. 11 ; Fracture of fore arm. 9 ; Fracture of clavicle, 27 ; Fracture of skull. 7 ; Fracture of ankles, 1 ; Fracture of condyles of femur. 1 ; Fracture of spine, 1 ; Fracture of hip. 1 ; Fracture of head of femur, 2 ; Fracture of thigh, 15 ; Fracture of metacarpal bones. 2 ; Fracture of the thumb, 2 , Fracture of maxilary bone, 2 ; Fracture of olicranon. 1 ; Fracture of ribs. 2 ; Fracture of patella, 1 ; Fistula in ano. 12 ; Fistula perinæum. 1 ; Fistula recto vaginalis, 1 ; Furunculi. 19 ; Gastritis. 52 ; Gastro-enteritis, 36 ; Gastro-dudoenitis, 1 ; Gastric disorder, 11 ; Gravel. 2 ; Gonorrhea, 107 ; Gastralgia, 22 ; Gastrodynia. 1 ; Gangrena, 4 ; Gangrena of lungs. 4 ; Hepatitis. 51 ; Hemorrhoids. 26 ; Hysteritis, 6 ; Hysteria. 15 ; Hydrops articuli. 1 ; Hemiphlegia. 4 ; Hernia, 9 ; Hysteralgia, 1 ; Hæmorrhage, 7 ; Heart, disease of. 43 ; Hydrocele. 4 ; Hydro-cephalus, 1 ; Hydro-thorax. 3 ; Hydro-pneumo-thorax, 1 ; Hydartrosis. 2 ; Hemicrania, 24 ; Hemeralopia. 2 ; Hypertrophy of liver, 1 ; Herpes. 5 ; Hematemesis. 1 ; Hermaphrodite, 1 ; Injury of spine, 9 ; Injury of thigh, with laceration of soft parts. 1 ; Intemperance, 44 ; Inflammation of Inguinal gland. 2 ; Inflammation of scrotum, 1 ; Insanity. 4 ; Iritis, 3 ; Ileus, 1 ; Impetigo, 2 ; Impetigo eczematodes, 1 ; Inanition 1 ; Incontinence of urine. 1 ; Jaundice. 21 ; Keratitis. 22 ; Kerato iritis. 2 ; Kerato conjunctivitis, 13 ; Laryngitis, 3 ; Leucorrhœa. 9 ; Lumbago. 8 ; Lupus syphilitica, 3 ; Luxation of shoulder, 7 ; Luxation of ulna, 1 ; Luxation of knee, 1 ; Luxation of clavicle, 1 ; Luxation of humerus, 5 ; Luxation of thigh, 2 ; Luxation of astragalus, 1 ; Luxation of head of os femori on dorsum of ilium, 1 ; Lefra, 1 ; Meningitis, 7 ; Meningitis cerebral spinal, 3 ; Metritis, 5 ; Melancholia, 3 ; Mania, 10 ; Mania a potu, 16 ; Mania puerperal, 1 ; Monomania, 5 : Menorrhagia, 1 : Measles, 1 : Metrorhagia, 1 : Marasmus, 13 : Neuralgia, 17 : Nephritis, 2 : Necrosis, 13 : Nebula, 3 : Orchitis, 28 : Œdema, 46 : Œdema glottidis, 2 : Opthalmia, 39 : Otorrhæa, 1 : Ostalgia, 1 : Odontalgia, 1 : Osteitis, 1 : Otitis, 1 : Osteo-sarcoma, 1 : Opacity of cornea, 3 : Pregnancy, 192 : Parturition, 2 : Pleurodinia, 3 : Phthisis, 402 : Phthisis Larangia, 3 : Placenta, retroversion of, 1 : Pleuritis, 61 : Paronychia, 17 : Phrenitis, 1 : Paralysis, 29 : Parotitis, 9 : Prostatis, 1 : Phelmasia dolens, 1 : Pneumonia, 58 ; Pneumonia typhoid, 4 : Pleuro-pneumonia, 9 : Peri-pneumonia, 1 : Pericarditis, 3 : Paraplegia, 1 : Phymosis, 1 : Paraphymosis, 2 : Pruritus vulvæ, 1 : Peritonitis, 4 : Peritonitis puerperal, 2 : Periostitis, 2 : Ptyalismus, 18 : Pulmonary congestive, 1 : Psoriasis, 4 : Phlegmon, 4 : Pertusis, 1 : Prurigo, 1 : Rheumatism, 358 : Retenitis, 1 : Retention of urine, 1 : Syphilis, 401 : Syphilides, 1 : Synovia, 5 : Scabies, 4 : Siatica, 3 : Sprain, 35 : Stricture of urethra, 14 : Sarcocele, 1 : Scald, 44 : Singultus, 1 : Splenitis, 2 : Stomatitis, 1 : Spermatorrhœa, 1 : Softening of spinal cord, 1 : Softening of brain, 3 : Sunstroke, 25 : Suppuration of parotid gland, 1 : Suppression of urine, 5 : Scrofula, 21 : Scurvy, 7 : Surditas, 1 : Staphyloma, 1 : Suicide by laudanum, 1 : Tetanus idiopatic, 7 : Tetanus traumatic, 5 : Tetanus lateralis, 1 : Trismus, nascentium, 3 : Tinea capitis, 1 : Tabes mesenterica, 3 : Tonsilitis, 7 : Torticolis, 1: Tumor, 4 : Tumor, ovarium, 2 : Tumor febris of upper jaw, 1 : Tumor malignant of face, 1 : Temulentia, 28 : Ulcer, 421 : Urticaria, 2 : Uteri prolapsus, 7 : Uteri retroversis, 1 : Unknown diseases, 20 : Variola confluens, 35 : Varioloid, 3 : Vaginitis, 1 : Vertigo, 1 : Wound, incised, 47 : Wound, lacerated, 28 ; Wound, punctured, 28 : Wound, penetrating 5 : Wound, gun-shot, 15.

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ART. I.—MODERN GREECE.

[CONCLUDED.]

[In our last number we rather abruptly closed the history of Modern Greece with the bloodless revolution of the 15th September, 1843, the acquiescence of Otho in the conditions imposed upon him, and the restoration of order throughout the kingdom. At this point the subject is resumed.]

THE wild Griziotis, "the Pasha of Eubœa," as the Greeks called him, had, with his armed bands, taken possession of Chalkis, where he scornfully imprisoned all the foreign officials. In the meantime the municipal councils of sixty towns and villages transmitted to the capital their acts approving and adopting the constitution. A new ministry was formed of the principal leaders of the revolution. Kolettis, Mavrokordatos, Trikoupis and Metaxâs were recalled from their foreign missions, and a national assembly was decreed to be elected, and to meet at Athens on the 20th of November.

This important event was looked for with great anxiety. The moderation of the Greek people on the 15th September did not last; the violent party-spirit soon broke loose again, and disgraceful disturbances followed in quick succession. The first consequence of the catastrophe was the giving way of all restraints of order and obedience; foreigners employed were insulted and wounded; the mountain robbers suddenly re-appeared, and English travelers were again, for the first time in ten years, attacked and plundered at Megara, on the isthmus of Corinth, nay, even on the high-road between Athens and the Piræus. All these convulsions were produced by the rivalry and ambition of the seven leaders, who, on their occupying the executive authority, grasped at the few thousand drachms they found in the treasury, in order to pay the numerous warriors, who, from all parts, hurried to the capital to get employment. The foreign officers, professors, artists, and others employed, even the household servants of the king, were dismissed, and soon after left Greece. Many distinguished men were treated with unsparing animosity, and the hate which the Greeks had shown toward the strangers they soon turned against their own countrymen. Rhallis, Khristidis, and the other deposed ministers, were accused of attempting a re-action, and were exiled to the islands. The king's Greek adjutants, the brave Gennœos Kolokotronis and Tzravellas, were insulted by the multitude, but succeeded at last, with their drawn swords, to force their way to the British men-of-war in the Piræus. Nor did the jealousy of the victorious party stop with the overthrow of the supposed royalists; it soon turned with still greater virulence against the most zealous declaimers of liberty and constitution, the elegant and influential Phanariotes, who having deserted the government by whom they rose, were now infatuated enough to believe that they had at once got the reins and the whip into their own hands. A few days after the September scene I met the lively poet, Alexander Soutzos, in the street. The Phanariote looked proudly, and called out to me from afar: "*Ca ira bien, nous avons déjà la constitution toute faite dans la poche!*"—(All comes on nicely, we have already the constitution ready-made in our pocket)—and alas! a fortnight later the admired poet, who in a witty, satirical poem had called the National Assembly "a herd of long-eared jacks," was publicly ill-treated by the populace, and obliged to fly to France.

The popular movement immediately took a turn quite contrary to the intentions and hopes of the Russian party, which thus suffered ridicule and defeat. Instead of obtaining the forced abdication of King Otho, which was the principal object they had in view, they had been the tools of men more clever than themselves. A liberal constitution had now been granted, which it never could have been their aim to obtain, but which had only served as a mask for their secret intrigues and Russian aspirations. Thus, then, the fruits of the September night were lost to Russia, whose embassador, M. de Katakasi, having been outwitted by the crafty Cretan, Kalergis, and his patriotic colleagues, had the deep mortification to see his machinations exposed to the merriment of those Greeks, who had pocketed the thousands of rubles with which they had been bribed. The total failure of the perfidious politics of Russia was of course thrown on the shoulders of the unhappy envoy, as being an indiscretion of his own. A fulminating *ukase* of the Emperor Nicholas openly disowned the proceedings of his minister, and tendered him his dismissal from the imperial service.

On the 23d of November a Russian steam-frigate anchored in the Piræus, on which he embarked for the Black Sea. Yet his exemption from punishment on his return to Russia, gives full evidence of his not having dived into the Greek conspiracy on his own responsibility, but by direct orders from the autocrat himself.

Kalergis, in the mean time, was the hero of the day.* As commander-in-chief of the army, he succeeded, by indefatigable activity, to restore order and obedience in the capital. In his address to the Hellenic people of the 16th September he says: "We have removed the obstacles which separated the throne from the nation. Foreigners no longer surround our king, and the representatives of the people are already assembling. Thus our wishes and prayers have been accomplished. Nothing more is needed that we may enjoy peace and good order, but to persuade the most unbelieving of our adversaries that our contest has been only excited by the honorable desire for the welfare of the state."

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* Kalergis, having been taken prisoner by Reshid-Pasha in the disastrous battle of the Piræus, on the 6th of May, 1827, was saved by the influence of General Church, but had his *ears* cut off by the Turks. The Bavarians afterwards mocked at the *earless* hero; but Kalergis answered with a laugh, "Better a *cropped* Cretan than a long-eared Bavarian!"

The elections went on all over Greece; it was indeed a time of the greatest excitement. In the Morea, they caused serious disturbances. It came to blows in Kalavrita, where several chiefs were killed; nowhere would the minority yield to the majority; each party therefore sent off their own deputies to Athens, often accompanied by well-armed retainers. The first task of the assembly was a difficult one; because it had to verify the legal authority of the delegates, and reject a great number as illegally chosen. In ancient Athens, the citizens used to hold their public assemblies on the Pnyx, the high hill westward of the Acropolis, where the ruins are still seen of the platform and the pulpit of the orators. During the revolutionary war Congress united at Argos in 1821, in the immense theatre cut out of the solid rock of the Larissa or Acropolis, where the picturesque groups, seated around, presented a most beautiful spectacle.

In 1843 the National Assembly, or *Ethnosyneleusis*, as the Greeks called it, occupied a large octagonal hall in the old palace, which formerly had served the triple purpose of a ball-room, a Roman Catholic Chapel for King Otho and his Bavarians, and a Lutheran Church for Queen Amelia, and nearly 300 members of the Protestant community of Athens. It was now suitably fitted out for the occasion, and decorated with white and purple drapery, and the portraits of the most distinguished characters from the war of independence. Panutzos Notarás, of Trikala, (Corinth,) was elected president. This venerable old man was 105 years of age, but showed an activity and intelligence which seemed incredible for a centogenarian! What times and changes had he witnessed! and through what terrible dangers had he carried his amiable and wealthy family! He was, however, assisted by four vice-presidents, the chiefs of the nation, Mavrokordatos, Kolettis, Metaxás, and Trikoupis—of whom the three first were the leaders of the English, French and Russian parties.

Since the eventful night of the 15th September, King Otho, keeping entirely aloof from affairs, had shown the most open sincerity, and had gained the good-will and confidence of all parties. On the 20th November he opened the 1st session of the assembly, in person, with a short and simple, but yet powerful speech of his own composition, which was received with satisfaction:

> "I appear in the midst of you," he said, "with the pleasing persuasion that this assembly will become the herald of happiness to our beloved Greece. From the very first establishment of the monarchy many liberal institutions have been founded, with the object of *preparing* the way for the introduction of a definite constitution. Free municipal institutions, pro-

vincial councils, trial by jury, were the precursors of the representative government in Hellas. We are now to place the key-stone of the edifice by the introduction of a full and liberal constitution. Let us unite our efforts for the establishment of a fundamental law, conformable to the true wants and circumstances of the state, and adapted to advance and secure the real interests of each. Yes, let wisdom and justice reign in all their force, and let the common tie of love unite us all. Confiding in your enlightened patriotism, I open this assembly: may the blessing of God make it propitious and advantageous to Greece! Her prosperity is my desire—is my glory."

Under loud acclamations King Otho left the hall, and the National Assembly immediately began the great work of the Constitution. Yet the hatred and violence of the parties still threatened with disorders; all the avenues of the Hall of Assembly were guarded by detachments of mounted lancers. In the entry, some officers, commanding a strong guard of infantry, were stopping the deputies, and ordering them to depose their weapons, pistols, sabres and daggers, which were given back to them at the close of the sitting. In another apartment was arranged a *lesche,* where the members during the long sittings would refresh themselves with the indispensable paper-cigars, coffee, and wine. In the interior hall, a line of fierce-looking gendarmes, with fixed bayonets, kept up a separation between the deputies and the boisterous spectators, who could hardly be hindered from taking an active part in the discussions. The hall was crowded with the 130 members from the different parts of Greece; nay, the ultra liberal party had even their representatives from Turkey, from Smyrna, Crete, Thessaly, Macedonia, and Epirus, the conquest of which they were dreaming. All these martial and fine-looking men were dressed in their beautiful national costumes; the Rumeliote mountaineer, in his snow-white kilt and the shaggy capote hanging down from his shoulder; the islander, in his Turkish jacket, richly laced with silk, and wide trowsers—some old men, even, in the long caftan and broad sash—all with the dashing red skull cap—the *fessi*—and the blue silk tassel, giving a picturesque and lively aspect to the eminently interesting scene. The foreigners, officers, secretaries, professors, physicians, artists, had all been dismissed from the royal service, and native Greeks placed temporarily in their situations, but they had free access to the assembly, and the Greek rulers, even with some irony, sent them tickets for the sittings of the deputies, as if calling on them to come on and admire the exuberant flow of national eloquence and talent! Thus, I, too, found an opportunity to be present at many of those curious scenes, which I shall attempt to describe. Among the mass of deputies—or *Plirexousii*, as the Greeks call them—were certainly some excellent orators, but they were few; these spoke in the beautiful modern Hellenic; while the greater number went on in their nearly unintelligible jargon, and many did not speak at all. The learned orators, in their imitation of Demosthenian eloquence, were continually interrupted by the illiterate members from Mount Pindus and Agrafa, calling out, "Stop, affendi! stop! speak plain Romaïc! we do not understand this hotch-potch!" Nay, the terrible Grivas would sometimes jump on his seat, and in a thundering voice taunt them as "*Bavarians*, who could not speak their mother tongue!"

The celebrated Athenian lawyers, Petzalis, Zographos, Dukas, and others, took the lead, and began the discussion with French rhetoric and exaggeration, describing the tumult in which the poet Soutzos had been boxed on the ears by the pallikars, and denouncing that "public safety did no longer exist in the seat of liberty, the city of Minerva!!" This called forth an outburst of indignation or laughter, when Count Metáxas, now Minister of the Interior, dressed in an out-worn, shabby coat and a dirty red cap, arose and answered in his corrupt Corfiote dialect, "Gentlemen, what happened, you know; we shall take care to do better for the future." But the joke did not end there; a dashing young Hydriote, Damianos, (formerly a humble secretary of Count Armansperg,) sprang forward, and made a most flowery and affected speech in the French style, maintaining in the face of all Hellas, the liberty of the poets, and of the press, that holy palladium of the most ancient and glorious of nations, and moved for the personal sanctity and inviolability of the members of the National Assembly. He was supported by Dr. Petzalis, who, in the most delightful manner, quoted many passages from the old French Revolution, so that the hall re-echoed with the Marats, Dantons, and Robespierres of old —and to the still greater amusement of the audience, an old shaggy Moreote exclaimed in his harsh dialect:

"What the devil are ye all wrangling about! Who can here maintain the personal safety of Congress, when two of our own members, Païkos and Klonaris, were thrashed in the street yesterday by the mob, and had their houses burnt down over their heads!!!"

The whole assembly now rose, and began to speak at the same time, in spite of the "ting-tang" of the silver bell, which the vice-president, Mavrokordatos, was ringing, in his despair calling out for "the order of the day!"

In the midst of the tumult, old Makry-Yannis, the Athenian, in his coarse white woolen jacket, waved violently with his hand, and succeeding in quieting down the noisy people, he roared forth: "Stop, affendades, stop, I say; there shall be no order of the day until the pallikars of the war have obtained eighteen deputies to represent the interests of *the old arms*," (*dia ta armata ta palœa.*)

It is impossible to describe the excitement and the tumultuous scene that followed on this most *dangerous* proposition. The pallikars, from every part of the hall, from the floor, the tribunes and galleries, who, no doubt, had been fully instructed by Makry-Yannis, rose with menacing gestures and outstretched fists. With loud acclamations they supported the motion; "they had shed their hearts' blood in the holy combat for the salvation of the country—while the *drones* —(kiphines)—had robbed them of their honey! They demanded money, titles and estates." A pale-faced beardless Chiote, resembling a Hamburg Jew, opposed the motion, supporting the inviolable rights of the peaceable citizens—of commerce and industry—"here in Athens, here in the presence of all Europe—of all the world!" But this only augmented the uproar. The warriors cried, "Down with that *drone;* down with the Phanariote! the mercenary foreigner; he, too, wants to suck our blood!" A robber-captain—a true Klepht—from the Morea, jumping up on his chair, began to beat his breast and tear open his jacket, in order to make a show of his wounds and scars! Many members now stole out of the hall to smoke their paper cigars in the ante-room; the gendarmes mustered their arms and drew up in line. A number of our young Greek officers from the military college in the Piræus were standing around, and having been themselves drilled to discipline and order, they immediately showed their disgust at the insubordinate pretensions of the savage and ignorant mountaineers. "Down with the Klephts," they cried, "their time has past."

Tempora mutantur
Et nos mutamur in illis!

The rising generation had already a powerful voice. The violent scene continued from ten o'clock in the morning till five in the afternoon. The crowds outside remained watching the progress of the startling question; the moderate party, however, got the upper hand. The motion of Makry-Yannis was lost; and fully exhausted, but proud of its victory, the assembly at last adjourned, amidst the shouts of the Athenian citizens.

Such is the picture of the opening of the Syneleusis in November, 1843. Many similar scenes followed, in which the selfishness and illiberality of the different parties, of the old warriors and the bigoted clergy, who strained every nerve to keep up their influence, were to be seen in their full and glaring colors, but they all give the brightest evidence of the sound judgment and admirable tact of the great body of the Greek nation, who went victoriously out of this political alembic a few months later.

The most difficult question which, at that time, seemed to threaten the court and capital with real danger, in spite of the energetic dispositions of Colonel Kalergis, was that of Hellenic nationality or citizénship.

The sittings continued to be stormy; and, by some intrigue of the Moreotes, the most illiberal decision was finally adopted. Thus the new constitution excluded from public service all Greeks who were not born *within* the narrow limits of the present pigmy kingdom of Hellas!—although by far the greatest part of men of talent and education were *Heterochtones*, or Greeks, from other parts without the frontiers, from Turkey, Russia or Austria, who had hurried to free Greece either during the war of independence or after its termination, in order to take their part in the reorganization of that distracted country. Nearly all the lawyers, physicians and literary men belonged to this class; and twenty professors of the Othonian University, at Athens, were, according to this unjust article of the constitution, to be dismissed from their chairs, while only *one* Greek professor out of the whole number happened to be a *born*

Moreote, and consequently an *Autochton*, or native of Greece. Such a regulation would have been the ruin of the newly-established university, and of the excellent organization of the tribunals of the kingdom, which, with so great care and discrimination, had been instituted by Chevalier de Maurer. The ingratitude and narrow-minded egotism of such a law in a country, which had the greatest need of the joint effort of all her educated and intelligent sons to make a stand against the barbarity and ignorance of the lawless warriors and bigoted clergy, was felt by every impartial man; and yet the violent party-spirit of the time got the better, and the law passed by the joint majority of the numerous deputies from the Morea. All Greeks who were not born in the kingdom, and all foreign Philhellenes who had arrived in Greece later than the battle of Petra, on the Copaïc Lake in Bœotia, in 1828, were to be considered as having no pretensions to be provided for by the state. They were to give up their offices to native Greeks and be dismissed from the public service. Yet the pernicious effects of this decree were in part neutralized by the remarkable amendment of the brave General Theodoros Grivas, from Acarnania. He suddenly rose, and, in a simple and pithy discourse, proposed that men of science and literature, as well as artists, should be excepted from that sweeping law. This amendment touched the better feelings of the Greeks; it was received with acclamation; it saved the honor of the national assembly, and prevented the ruin of the literary establishments of the young kingdom. The statute of nationality thus in the practice became circumscribed to the military and the ministerial departments, while several foreign literary men and artists were replaced in their offices during the subsequent liberal ministry of Kolettis.

During the whole period of the debates on the constitution, Athens remained in a continual state of alarm. Colonel Kalergis and the Athenian garrison were day and night engaged in putting down boisterous assemblies or seditious demonstrations, and succeeded, by their discipline and vigilance, to secure the safety of the royal family and the capital. Bands of robbers, descending from the mountains, committed depredations on the frontiers, and were with some difficulty dispersed and driven back into Turkey. Four line-of-battle ships, British and French, with several steam-frigates, were anchored within the port of the Piræus, ready on the first signal to land a strong body of marines and sailors, with eighteen field-pieces, for the support of the king and government at Athens. But the thunderstorm passed over. On the 30th of March, 1844, the king accepted, and swore to the constitution. The Constituent Assembly had thus happily terminated its labors to the satisfaction of the throne and the people. Its session had lasted four months, from November 20, 1843, to March 30, 1844, and may, upon the whole, be considered as highly honorable to Greece. The first excitement of the insurrection in September having passed away, and the irregularly elected deputies been ejected, the discussions of the Chamber became more quiet, and were mostly circumscribed to the leading points of the constitution itself. Men of such talents as Kolettis, Trikoupis and Mavrokordatos therefore succeeded in introducing order and regularity. Many of the Greek deputies, though illiterate, and unprepared for public oratory, soon began to form themselves into eloquent speakers by the natural pliancy and versatility of their genius. The ease and self-possession with which the mountaineers then would arise and speak some few words to the point, did not fail to strike the foreign embassadors present with astonishment and admiration. If, therefore, we compare the Greek Constituent Assembly of 1843–'44, with those which afterwards sprang up in Frankfort, Berlin and Vienna in 1848, and instead of establishing union, harmony and order, only tended to spread dissensions, disorder and rebellion, by their absurd *revivals* and their headlong encroachments on the prerogative of the executive governments, we certainly cannot but express our satisfaction with the innate tact of the Greeks, which prompted them to reject all desultory motions and dangerous firebrands which often were thrown in, and to keep up an austere and determined spirit of business, constantly directed to the *main point* in question—the fundamental laws of the young state. At the same time they showed their acknowledgment of the sincere intentions of King Otho; they often expressed their esteem for the personal character of the young sovereign; his remarks and proposed alterations in the constitution scheme were, with peculiar delicacy, discussed within closed doors, and the replies agreed upon the next day read over in the public sittings.

Another highly interesting subject is the astonishing progress which the modern Greek language had made. This we discover by comparing the text of the constitution of 1844 with the earlier legislations of Argos, Astros and Trœzen, twenty years earlier. The former is written in a noble language, which, for terse perspicuity and accuracy of definitions, will challenge comparison with any similar document in the world.

According to the constitution of March 30, 1844, the person of the king is sacred and inviolable—his ministers being *responsible;* he enjoys all the usual rights and prerogatives of constitutional monarchies.

The legislative power is exercised collectively by the king through his ministers, the chamber and the senate. All laws and regulations regarding the annual budgets, the income and expenditure of the state, &c., shall first be brought before and voted by the chamber. Both the chamber and the senate are to meet by right on the 1st (13th) of November every year, and the duration of each session will last for at least two months. The law election is liberal, but certain qualifications are required for the representatives. They are elected triennially, and their number cannot be less than eighty. They must have completed their 30th year, and receive, whilst in performance of their duties, from the public treasury 250 drachms, or 41 dollars 75 cents in monthly allowance during the sitting of the assembly. The king appoints senators for life, their number is twenty-seven; but may be increased with the consent of the chamber. They must have completed their 40th year, and have distinguished themselves in the service of Greece. Their allowance is 500 drachms or 85 dollars 25 cents per mouth whilst sitting. The Orthodox Church of Greece is united in its doctrinal union with the Patriarchal Church of Constantinople, but it is self-independent, or *autokepholos*, and exercises its supreme powers within itself, independently of the Eastern Church, and is governed by a *holy synod* of bishops, thus cutting short all the intrigues of the Constantinopolitan and Russian clergy, which have exercised such a pernicious influence on the Ionian Islands, and brought the English government into continual difficulties.

The press was given free, and censorship interdicted; trial by jury was retained from the earlier institutions, but extended to all political offences, as well as to those of the press. One of the most important provisions of the constitution at that time, was the succession of the throne, which was only to be given to a Greek orthodox prince—no doubt, with the intention of excluding the Bavarian family, and making the people proclaim a Russian prince.

The ceremony itself took place in the octagonal hall of the old palace, and is described as being beautiful and touching in the highest degree. I was myself absent in Syria at the time, but letters from my Athenian friends describe the brilliant scene; more than 7,000 persons were crowding the hall and its avenues; the young king, with his charming Amelia, was received with enthusiastic acclamations, and when he had taken the oath of the constitution, and declared the Constituent Assembly dissolved, the members and thousands of citizens spontaneously accompanied the lovely couple back to their residence, and gave nine tremendous cheers, which rang back from the mountains. Greece had become a constitutional kingdom! So far all went on smoothly, far beyond expectation, but now the great difficulty arose at once—the practical application of the new system, at a time of great pecuniary distress, when the insurrectionary movement in the provinces, and the grasping hands of the revolutionary *seven men*, had deprived government of the last few thousand dollars which the Bavarian camarilla had left in the treasury.

The first legislative chamber was then elected in July. In the mean time, the greatest anxiety prevailed in Athens among all the politicians to know if the constitution really could work among the conflicting parties. The leading men, of course, were all hanging around King Otho, making low bows, and fair promises, in order to get his orders for putting together the first responsible ministry.

Otho, no doubt, sincerely wished to make the new form of government a reality; but he had a difficult task to perform, in order to choose his ministry among men who enjoyed the confidence of the nation. By the strenuous exertions of the British embassador, Sir Edmund Lyons, the first constitutional ministry was taken from the English party, with Alexander Mavrokordatos at the head of the administration. But this triumph was short-lived; it lasted only four months—from the 13th of April to the 17th of August, 1844. Kolettis, the most popular man in Greece, refused to support his old rival, and formed a secret coalition with Count Metaxás of the Russian party. This strong opposition at the very outset exasperated the haughty Mavrokordatos. In order to strengthen his own administration, he, in the most arbitrary and unconstitutional manner, dismissed a multitude of state officers, and filled their places with his own partisans. By these precipitate and violent measures, he soon lost his long-acquired reputation, in spite of the high-sounding and applauding dispatches of Sir Edmund to the British government.—Kolettis wielded the dangerous firebrand of the press; Theodoros Grivas flew to arms, and calling together his wild clansmen, the Klephties spread rebellion and devastation through Ætolia and Acarnania. Having been defeated in several skirmishes against the royal troops, he, with a safe-conduct, returned to Athens. But on his receiving notice from the French embassador at the Piræus, that Mavrokordatos intended to take him prisoner by treachery, he fled on board a French frigate, which carried him to Egypt. A tumult broke out at Athens on the 23d of June, which could only be quelled by the energetic measures of Colonel Kalergis. The greatest obstacle to the ministry of Mavrokordatos were the unfavorable elections for the next assembly. The prime minister moved every stone by bribery and corruption, by threats and open violence, to secure the votes in favor of the English party. Bloodshed was frequent at Kalavrita and other places, in the Morea. Kalergis was put forward as a ministerial candidate for the Chamber of Deputies, in direct violation of the new constitution, which as yet only existed on paper.—Yet the most extraordinary scene occurred at Patræ in Achaia. There the minister of justice attempted, by means of the *chorophylakes* or gendarmes, to force the inhabitants to elect *him* as their deputy. A letter written by himself, ordering the officers to make use of military violence to secure his election, fell into the hands of the opposition. In triumph it was carried to King Otho, and soon made public by the press. It excited a peal of indignation, which sounded the knell of the Mavrokordatian administration. Otho had never had any confidence in the proud Phanariote; he now became an aversion to the king; but the great difficulty was how to reconcile the parties by a change in the ministry. The "*entente cordiale*" between the French and British cabinets, at that time, made the obsequious M. de Piscatory attempt to employ his influence to support Mavrokordatos, and thus to preserve the appearance of a friendly union of the French and English parties. Kolettis was to take part in the government; but that shrewd statesman soon discovered that the English party had already suffered a total shipwreck in the public opinion, and that the hour had arrived for him, at the head of his numerous followers, and of the malcontents who had lost office, to stand forward as the champion of the constitution. The parties came to a pitched battle at Athens on the 17th of August. Kalergis called on the troops in vain; they refused to interfere; the gendarmes advanced, but they were routed by the armed multitude. In the midst of the struggle, King Otho suddenly appeared on horseback, and order and obedience were instantly restored. This tumult in Athens gave the death-blow to the ministry, and to the military sway of

Kalergis. The Constantinopolitan Heterochton, Mavrokordatos, now gave way to the Autochton or native Rumeliote, Johannis Kolettis;—the minister resigned, and the commandant of Athens, the favorite hero of September, was, by one of those sudden reversions of public opinion, scorned and insulted by the Athenian people, like Themistocles and Phocion of old, and forced to seek a refuge in Corfu, and later in England, where he remained for several years in perfect retirement from the political movements of the day.

Kolettis was more successful. Among all the Greek statesmen, he was the only one who combined integrity of character and unceasing activity with the most sincere desire of promoting the happiness of the nation and of strengthening the throne. Johannis Kolettis was a Rumeliote from Mount Agrafa, who had studied medicine at Pisa, in Tuscany; and later, appeared with brilliant success as the leader of the liberal party in Greece, after the death of Count Capo d'Istrias, in 1831. It was no doubt a most unhappy idea of the government of Count Armansperg to send off this able and popular man as Greek embassador in France, whence he did not return until after the revolution of September.

In spite of the hostility of the English and Russian party, of the intrigues of Sir Edmund Lyons, and the defamatory articles of his Secretary, Mr. Griffith, in the *Morning Chronicle*,[*] Kolettis wielded with vigor the mace of office for three years, until his sudden death on the 12th Sept., 1847. He enjoyed the full confidence of the king and the nation. But he had a hard stand against the systematic persecution of Lord Palmerston and the party-spirit in Greece itself, fomented and strengthened by foreign intrigues. The old pallikars, who, after the dissolution of the phalanx, had again become the scourge of Greece, either turned robbers in the mountains, or they raised openly the banner of rebellion against Kolettis. Thus broke out that short but sanguinary contest of the old Griziotis, the lion of Eubœa, who nevertheless was quickly surrounded by the regular troops of government, commanded by Grivas, and after a smart engagement on the hills of Alliveri, in which he lost an arm, he was defeated and forced to flee to Smyrna, where he died of his wounds.

This resistance on the part of the mountaineers, the intrigues in the Chamber, the arrogant demands of the Great Powers, pressing poor Greece to pay the enormous dividends of a loan, the third series of which had never been paid, made the unhappy premier adopt several violent measures little calculated to pacify the parties, or to economize the resources of the state. Yet, on the other hand, has his administration, by impartial Greeks, been considered as the most just and active since the day of independence. Kolettis was the liberal protector of the University of Athens, of the colleges and schools in the provinces, which would have gone entirely to ruins, without the necessary support of the minister; the same care was extended to the monuments of the Acropolis and the lower city, where interesting excavations were undertaken.

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[*] The *Morning Chronicle* says, Oct., 1847—"Colettis was the willing *tool* of the corruptive influence of bad men!! The word 'Colettis' is but a symbolic representation of the pernicious system followed by the ministry over which he presided: it is an hieroglyphic engraven on the broken pillar of the Greek Constitution," &c. It is a melancholy fact, that the continual, most unjust, and most absurd attacks on Greece in the British papers, have found many uncritical believers in this country of free and independent research.

Kolettis was suffering from a cancer; the disgusts which the opposition party caused him, by thwarting his best intentions, augmented the evil: it suddenly became mortal. Kolettis called for King Otho. The interview was touching. The court and the citizens of Athens followed the hearse of their brave and regretted statesman to his sepulchre on the banks of the Ilissus, where he reposes side by side with Theodoros Kolokotronis, who with his sabre in the derveni of Corinth, gained that independence for Hellas, to the development of which Kolettis devoted his entire life.

The virtuous Ipsariote, Admiral Konstantinos Kanaris, now formed a new cabinet. But neither the ignorant Tzravellas, nor the active Dr. Glarakis, nor the blustering Khristidis, (of unhappy memory from 1843!) was able to steer the bark of the state clear of the rocks. From one difficulty Greece got into another. Though she was prudent enough to take no part in the juvenile pranks of her western neighbors in 1848–9, and enjoyed both tranquillity, and a steady, though creeping progress, in industry, cultivation, and commerce, in spite of intriguing embassadors and calumniating newspapers—yet the old blunders of the Bavarian rule, and the spirited resistance of Kolettis against British encroachments, soon made poor Hellas smart under the long-nourished wrath and thundering hostility of Lord Palmerston in 1850. The narrow space allowed to us in the valuable Review of our distinguished editor, Prof. De Bow, does not permit us to give the details of his unjust and arrogant attack on Greece; the facts are before the public. The small islands of Cabrera and Sapienza, lying under the coast of Peloponnesus, were demanded by England, quite contrary to former treaties and the law of nations. The claim of Col. Finlay, of an exorbitant indemnification for his grounds on the Ilissus, was as unjust, because the Greek Government had, before the removal of the Capital from Nauplion to Athens, in 1834, already beforehand stipulated the sums it intended to pay for lots which might be required for the use of the state; and, last of all, the pretensions of the Portuguese banker, Mr. Pacifico, were in the highest degree absurd and ridiculous, as it has been sufficiently proved by the papers lately published by the Portuguese government.

We shall, therefore, only add that King Otho's government, with the weighty interference of France and Russia, showed a prudent moderation and integrity of conduct, highly honorable to that small and depressed nation. It would be in vain to deny that the sanguine hopes of Europe and America, during the heroical resistance of the Greeks in the war of independence, have not been fulfilled. Yet the main cause of the slow progress of that country lies in the maimed and crippled condition in which the decimated nation at last escaped from the fangs of the Turks. The tender solicitude of the Great Powers deprived the Greek people of all those fertile provinces of their heroical brethren, who, by a union under the banner of liberty, might have given strength and resources to the new state. The Ionian Islands, Crete, Rhodes, Samos, Chios, Thessaly, Macedonia, and Epirus (Albania,) the richest and most populous parts of Greece, were again riveted to the horns of the crescent; and by transforming the desolated Livadia and Morea, with its 500,000 inhabitants, its barren mountains, desolated plains, and destroyed cities and villages, into a European kingdom, with king, court, expensive administration, army and navy, the real cause was laid to that feverish yet lingering existence between life and death, which no doubt may still continue for some years, and may not give way to a new pulsation, before the thunders of the Russian myriads are heard peeling from the distant shores of the Bosphorus. That day will certainly come. Greeks, Albanians, Bosnians, Servians and Bulgarians—all are awaiting that day of decision which may prepare a new page for the history of the Orient.*

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* Letters, which lately have arrived from Zante and Athens, corroborate to a remarkable degree the above views taken in our article, and prove that the Greek Constitution of 30th March, 1844, does not work, in the midst of contending parties, and selfish, ambitious individuals, who neutralize the honest but circumscribed activity of King Otho's government. A new conspiracy has been plotted in Athens—not like that of September, 1843, in order to overthrow the absolute rule of Otho; no, quite on the contrary—to do away with the Constitution, and once more to put the reins of the government in the hands of the sovereign.

The dissatisfaction with the chambers and the different Greek cabinets which have followed since the death of Kolettis in 1847, has long ago spread through the country. The conspirators had chosen the first day of Lent for the execution of their plan. On that day an annual popular festival takes place around one of the most splendid monuments of antiquity, the gigantic group of columns of the Temple of Jupiter Olympus, situated on the plain, east of Athens, near the dry river-bed of the Ilissus. On that day all the inhabitants of Athens, from the oldest to the youngest, turn out and wend their way to the beautiful platform of the sanctuary of their forefathers, where the tables are spread beneath the lofty columns, and feasting, singing, and dancing, occupy the lively Athenians to a late hour at night.

The pallikars from the Turkish war sometimes give King Otho a banquet beneath the Olympian Temple-ruins—one of the most romantic and picturesque spectacles that can be seen. It was during the orgies of this truly national fête that the royalist conspirators had the intention of giving the signal, and profiting by the excitement of the crowd, to carry them along with the shouts of "Long life to King Otho—down with the constitution—down with the party-men!" But a sudden thunder-storm inundating the plain in the morning, drove the masses early back to the city, and the *synomotæ*, therefore, were obliged to organize something like a *riot*, and, in order to render it more effectual, they distributed letters among the officers of the troops in garrison at Athens, informing them that a great popular movement was in preparation, which, being in favor of the monarchy, they requested them to support it with the gendarmes and regulars, by joining the military to the people, as in 1843 !!! Yet some of the officers, instead of keeping the secret to themselves, made instantly a show of patriotism by appearing in the Chamber of Deputies with their letters, when a violent discussion took place, and, on the motion of a Maniote deputy, Komoundourakis, severe measures were taken in order to defend the constitution of the country.

ART. II.—TAXATION AND REVENUES, ANCIENT AND MODERN.

PART I.—OF THE ATHENIANS.

The peninsula of Attica, separated from the rest of Greece, on one side by ranges of mountains, and washed on the others by the Saronic Gulf and the Ægean Sea, was little exposed to those incursions in quest of plunder, so prevalent in the earlier ages. The inhabitants, thus relieved from the certainty and the apprehension of impending dangers, had leisure for the pursuits of husbandry, and for the cultivation of the arts of peace. Accordingly, Athens, from a small and rude settlement, under the lead of Cecrops, in a series of years became the centre of opulence, civilization and refinement. Soon the science of government, and the moral and social nature of man, hitherto neglected, received the attention of philosophers and statesmen. Legislative, executive and judicial tribunals were established for the enactment, enforcement and exposition of laws. The rights of property and of person were protected; wrongs were redressed, and the first great lesson of human liberty was illustrated by practical experience—that every citizen may govern himself, his household, and his estates, pursuant to his own judgment, when not inconsistent with the public interests or morals. Possessed, too, of a language combining harmony, flexibility and power beyond every other known dialect of the world, poetry and eloquence, history and philosophy, political economy and mathematics, were taught in the schools, discussed at the Symposia, and studied in the retreats of home.

With the augmentation of individual and of public wealth, a taste, and the means of its gratification, were developed for architecture, sculpture, painting, music, and the fine arts generally. A passion for the useful and the beautiful was combined; and private munificence vied with the lavish liberality of the state. Temples in honor of religion, schools for the public instruction, theatres for the public amusement, gymnasia for the public exercises, baths, festivals, lyceums, legislative assemblies, tribunals of justice, fleets and armies, were alike the objects of solicitude and attention—were maintained and controlled by the law, and formed parts or outlines of a regular system. Every public institution of that lively and ingenious people was connected with civil life. Hence, observes Cicero, "literary heroes issue from the school of Isocrates, like Grecian heroes from the Trojan horse."

Allured by inducements such as these, and others which promised profitable investments, pleasure, or security, exiles of distinction, and men of wealth, flocked to Athens as a place of refuge from the tyranny and extortion of their native countries. Some, and indeed most of them, became citizens, and engaged in the pursuits of letters or of trade, and shared in the common burdens and benefits of the state. In addition, however, to the usual taxes, these *matoeci* or foreigners were compelled to pay an annual poll-tax for the privileges they enjoyed. This amounted to twelve drachmæ ($2,04) for each man, and half that sum for each woman without sons; and as this number is estimated at ten thousand families, it is evident a considerable revenue was thus derived. A default in the payment was visited by no less a penalty than that of being sold into slavery. There was also a tax somewhat similar upon all liberated slaves or freedmen.

The situation of Attica for commerce was propitious. A long line of coast and several excellent harbors invited and facilitated that mode of life suited to the sea. The people, stimulated by the natural sterility of the soil, into a ready appreciation of these advantages, had many wholesome laws adopted, tending to promote navigation and trade. Some of those relating to the protection of merchants and bankers—to the interest on money, to the collection of duties, and concerning the different kinds of maritime contracts—operated so encouragingly, as to induce the employment of the larger portion of the capital of the city in trade. A duty of two per cent. was levied both upon imports and exports, besides a per centage to the warehouses and harbors, which were public property. The chief import was that of corn and other provisions; but timber for ship-building, iron, steel, honey, ware, wool, leather and raw hides, salt and salt-fish, carpets, coverlets and robes, wines, fruits and slaves, likewise found a ready sale at Athens. In exchange for these, the exports consisted of swords, arms and hardware, furniture and beds, vases, lamps and oils, cloths, and the products of the loom, various kinds of utensils, books, and the timber of the cypress, fir and plane. This foreign trade exceeded in value two millions of dollars annually, and the duties thereon were regularly farmed out to the highest bidder. A free circulation and frequent coinage of money was necessary to, and a result from, an extensive commerce. Of money, there were three kinds—gold, silver and copper. The first was rarely seen until after the robbery of the temple at Delphi by the Platians, and the time of Philip of Macedon, and the last met with so little favor as never to have found its way into general use. Silver, which could be legally coined by private citizens as well as by the state, was therefore the usual standard and the chief currency. Of higher intrinsic value than that of contiguous states, the Attic silver coinage was much esteemed by merchants and commercial dealers. These coins, rude at first, and gradually improved, were made to answer the convenience of all classes, and in every kind of business. They ranged from the lepton, which, in our currency, represents less than a mill, to the silver talent, of the value of $1,055 59. The talent of gold was worth ten times the latter sum.

There was likewise an excise duty levied upon commodities sold in the general market. At all hours of the day, and especially from nine o'clock in the morning until noon, vast throngs of people, some to purchase, others to sell, and still a larger number as mere spectators, frequented the place, from which issued a stream of provisions to supply the luxuries of the table. The police was upon the spot in sufficient force to maintain order; magistrates were there to superintend the prices, and the quality of the articles exposed for sale, and also collectors to receive the duties which the law imposed upon whatever was sold. Unfortunately, we have no precise information with regard to this duty; but certainly the income from it must have been considerable, since we have evidence, that in variety and richness the markets of Athens might compare favorably with those to be found in the cities of the present day. Of fish, they had the lamprey, the dorado, the weever, the shad, the turbot, the mackerel, the mullet, oysters and lobsters; of fowls—capons, pigeons, ducks, chickens and geese; of birds—pheasants, partridges, quails, larks, doves and woodcocks; of meats—beef, mutton, kid, venison, pork and wild boar; of breads—biscuit, cakes, tarts, and various other preparations of flour; of vegetables—parsley, mint, oxymel, mushrooms, asparagus, cabbages, cucumbers, and an infinite variety of others; of fruit—apples, pears, quinces, figs, olives and grapes.

No portion of Athenian history is more obscure than that connected with jurisprudence. The number of the courts, and their various and often conflicting jurisdictions, as well as the multitude of judges, and their mode of procedure and decision, render the system one of exceeding complicity. It is, however, certain that every qualified citizen had a right to be heard in one of the numerous places of judicature, whenever he desired to institute a criminal prosecution against another, or to obtain redress for grievances to himself. Preliminary to a trial he was obliged to deposit a fee, if he appeared as a prosecutor, and to give security if he commenced a civil action. The witnesses were then summoned and examined; argument on both sides was heard, and the cause decided according to the testimony and decrees of the Senate. In those cases in which the prosecution was sustained, such punishment was inflicted as the nature of the offence required—fines, banishment, confiscation, or death. If the prosecutor, before the trial, compromised the affair, or failed to establish the charge by a vote of the fifth part of the judges, he was himself fined in the sum of a thousand drachmæ. The treasury received the benefit of all these fees and fines. In later times, when depravity became proverbial, and when accusations against the wealthy had only to be made to be supported, and when all the disputes and law-suits of the allies with themselves and with the Athenians were brought into the courts of the city for trial, the income from these sources to the state must have been quite large.

Not the least important branch of the revenue was derived from the silver mines of Laurium. These, for a long period of time, yielded so abundantly as to induce an opinion, everywhere prevalent, that they were inexhaustible. Though worked by thousands of slaves, under the guidance of skilful and shrewd directors, Xenophon had such an idea of their extent that he urged the employment of thousands of additional slaves as the most effectual mode of enriching the state, and of relieving the public burdens. "Their present condition," remarks he, "is a good argument; that there never can be more hands at work in the mines than there is employment for, for we dig on, still without finding any bottom or end of our mines, or decay of the silver ore." These mines belonged to the state, and were deemed of such consequence as to demand the supervision of a particular magistrate, who farmed them to individuals or companies, on condition that a twenty-fourth of the profits be paid into the treasury. A special tax for the opening of every new mine was likewise exacted. This tax, and the profits derived to the treasury on the leases, maintained the navy during the Peloponnesian war.

The sacred olive trees, scattered over the lands of individuals in various parts of the country, were consecrated, together with the grounds immediately around, to Minerva. From them was not unfrequently produced a rich harvest of fruit, which, when gathered, was sold at auction, and the proceeds paid into the treasury. By forfeiture and confiscation, the state was also the owner of an extensive landed property, some of which was arable, some in pasture, and some in forest. These lands, and houses acquired in the same way, were placed under leases at stated annual rents.

By far the most considerable portion of the revenues consisted in the tribute exacted of the islands and cities dependent upon Athens. The claim to this tribute was founded, in the first instance, upon a gross abuse of power. After the second Persian invasion, when the whole of Greece were keenly alive to their dangers, and anxious to avenge their wrongs, it was determined by many of the smaller states in league with Athens, to set apart every year a large sum to defray the expenses of a contemplated war upon the barbarians. The Athenians, having at that time distinguished themselves by their mighty naval preparations, as well as by the courage, wisdom and humanity of their conduct, were made by common consent the receivers of this fund, which, having been assessed, town by town, according to the ability of each inhabitant, amounted to four hundred and sixty talents. So long as it was their interest, the Athenians kept this fund untouched; but when their power increased, and their ambitious superiority was no longer denied, the gratuitous contribution of the allies was changed into a humiliating and oppressive exaction, which was annually demanded. They taxed their new conquests in the same manner, until, in the time of Pericles, the amount of tribute was swelled to six hundred talents. During the Peloponnesian war, the system was so far altered as to constitute a harbor-duty of five per cent. upon imports and exports, as a medium of taxation, and which yielded the round sum of one thousand three hundred talents.

Thus much of what may be termed the regular or ordinary revenues of Athens, which have been by most authorities reckoned as a total, at 2000 talents annually, or 2,111,180 dollars. This large sum will appear enormous, when it is recollected that the precious metals were nearly four times greater in value than now. But considerable as these revenues confessedly are, they were often insufficient to defray the expenses of the state; recourse was then had to free gifts and forced contributions.

As a first step towards collecting this extraordinary revenue, the senate declared to the general assembly the wants of the treasury. On such occasions, it was customary for each individual to declare aloud, the sums he was willing to bestow for the public service; and a generous and laudable emulation was not unfrequently displayed, by citizens of fortune, upon whom should devolve the honor of contributing most liberally towards the relief of the republic.

The next expedient was, to impose a tax on the whole commonwealth, tribe by tribe, whereby all persons were obliged to contribute in proportion to their estates. A failure or refusal to pay this tax, was at one period punished by imprisonment; but subsequently, this regulation was so far softened, that a certain time was allowed for payment, and when that expired, the goods of the defaulter were seized and sold at auction.

From B. C. 378, the following system was adopted. Each of the ten *phylæ* or tribes into which the city was divided, pointed out 1,200 of the wealthiest citizens belonging to it, without reference to the fact, whether their wealth consisted in lands, manufactories, money invested in trade, or placed at interest in the hands of bankers. These 1,200 were sub-divided into two equal divisions of 600 each; and from these again were selected 300, who were more wealthy than the others. Upon the latter fell primarily the liability to furnish the requisite supplies of money, and with the rest of the 1,200 to perform all extraordinary duties in rotation. If any one of the 300 could name a person more wealthy than himself, he was excused.—This sometimes led to bitter and protracted contests, and even to an exchange of property.

Still another plan was much in fashion, when it became necessary to provide subsistence for the crew upon the fitting out of an armament. Each of the ten tribes levied in its district a talent for every galley to be equipped. This assessment was made upon every sixteen persons without regard to their property, or ability to pay. Demosthenes, in the face of decided opposition, succeeded in substituting a different plan, by which property was constituted the measure of this tax. His plan was this: every citizen whose fortune reached ten talents, was obliged in case of need to furnish one galley to the state; of twenty talents, two, and no matter how great his estate, he could never be compelled to furnish more than three. Citizens of less estate joined or clubbed together to furnish a galley.

This tax, which ceased with the emergency, was levied without distinction of person, except that Archons—orphans under pupilage—and unmarried heiresses (Epicleri) were exempt.

In the frequent wars in which the Athenians were engaged, the booty—which consisted of prisoners and spoils—was often of much value. The prisoners, who were unable to effect a ransom, were made slaves, and employed in the service of the conqueror, or sold. The spoils were brought to the commanding general, and by him apportioned. Sometimes, and indeed most usually, these were appropriated to enrich himself, or his soldiers; at other times they were disposed of to defray the expenses of public works, and occasionally deposited in the treasury, or applied in the decoration of temples, or the erection of costly trophies. All that the state required in this respect was, that the troops might be supported, if possible, at the charge of the enemy, and to find in their spoils a supplement to their pay, when the public necessity pressed its diminution.

A tax, often imposed, and which fell with much severity upon the wealthier citizens, was that denominated free gifts. This owed its origin to an unceasing appetite for theatrical exhibitions and costly shows; hence the rich were constantly harassed by demands for contributions necessary to support not only them, but the gymnasia, the public games, and other sources of popular amusement. These expenses were occasionally undertaken without compulsion; and there are not wanting instances of vain and ambitious men who have squandered their estates in splendid entertainments to gratify this taste of the populace; yet the tribe most usually appointed the person upon whom the burden should fall. Whatever may have been the motive which occasioned the elections—whether by secret cabals, or arts, or intrigue, or popular favor, or displeasure, or from supposed ability to bear the exaction with least injury—no one could claim exemption, unless, by a long course of distinguished services to the state, the right of refusal had been earned. At this time too, a diobolon, nearly six cents, for three successive days in each week, was allowed the indigent from the treasury, in order to furnish them the means of admittance to the theatres, feasts, &c.; and so jealous were the people of this fund, and so devoted were they to these amusements, that no emergency, no necessity, no perils of the state, could induce its employment in the public service. A bare proposition to that effect was sufficient to denounce upon the offender the punishment of death.

The chief administration of the finances devolved upon the senate, or upper council, and the assemblies of the people; but the details of the management were intrusted to certain officers, who were divided into classes, with distinct duties. One class was composed of such as attended to the collecting of the revenue, and to the preliminary arrangements. They were ten in number, and selected one from each tribe. It was their duty to collect the taxes, excises, duties and rents; to receive the fines, and forfeitures, and confiscations; to take charge of whatever was sold or leased by the state; to assess the imports, exports and tributes; to enrol the names of persons and families from whom extraordinary contributions were required, and to fix the amount of the same, and to farm such of the revenues as were let out upon contracts. A second class, likewise ten in number, received the public income from the collectors; kept memoranda and accounts of its collection; prosecuted those who had not paid, and erased in the presence of the senate the names of those who had, and decided all controversies arising upon matters connected with their office. A third class were ten treasurers, chosen by lot, to whom was committed the custody of the public moneys as they were paid into the treasury; whence they were disbursed to suit the exigencies of the state. There was still another officer chosen every four years, whose superintendence was confined to the current expenditure; who paid the salaries of the magistrates, and other functionaries; distributed the state allowance to the poor and infirm, and disbursed such extraordinary items as the sovereign people commanded. He was required to keep an account of receipts, and disbursements, which were checked by a controller appointed for that purpose. In addition, there was a general overseer, who superintended all the collectors, as well as the magistrates having charge of the mines or other public property.

Punctuality and honesty in the discharge of the various functions of these respective offices was attempted to be secured of the officers by requiring heavy bonds and sureties at the outset; and by denouncing upon defaulters imprisonment, double payment, deprivation of the privileges of citizenship, *atimia*, which, besides confiscation, rendered the debtor of the state as well as his children infamous, and even capital punishment. But despite these stringent and sanguinary laws, if we may credit the satirist, Aristophanes, nearly the whole of the annual revenues were consumed in peculation.

The usual purposes for which the revenues were disbursed may be divided into three sorts:

1. Those that were required for the pay and support of the army and navy. The custom of paying soldiers was introduced by Pericles. They had no regular or fixed salary. It varied from a diabolon to a drachma a day, according to the condition of the soldier, or the service to be performed.

2. Such as were expended in civil uses. These included the wages of the senators, a drachma a day; of the judges, a triolus; and of those who attended the general assembly, three oboli. This likewise included the pay of embassadors, a large corps of police, advocates, and state physicians; the erection of fortifications, docks, arsenals, and walls; the repairing of roads, streets, and harbors; the maintenance of poor and disabled citizens, and of the children of those who had been slain in battle, and donations, and *theoric* money for the populace.

3. Those that were devoted to pious objects. These had reference to the building and repairing of temples; to banquets, festivals, sacrifices, and of offerings in honor of some deceased hero, or of some of the gods, as well as to prizes and processions, and theatrical and gymnastic entertainments.

ART. III.—NICARAGUA:

AND THE PROPOSED INTEROCEANIC CANAL.*

No part of the American continent has attracted, of late years, so much general attention, both of our own people and of Europe, as Central America, and particularly that portion of it known as Nicaragua. This deep and long-continued attention is the result of its position alone, and not of any remarkable value that Nicaragua, as a country simply, may possess. In the same way the isthmus of Suez has long absorbed the attention of some of the principal European powers, without, however, attracting any very special interest in America. Nicaragua, on the contrary, has long riveted the attention of the whole civilized world; and this, because it is known to be the only great barrier to the accomplishment of a great project, which has been steadily pursued ever since the days of Sesostris—the discovery of the shortest and most expeditious route to India. No project is older or has ever been more steadily pursued than this; and its history occupies a large space in that of navigation and of geographical discoveries. It is a very remarkable circumstance, that, ever since the earliest historical ages of the world, a short and expeditious route to India has been a desideratum steadily pursued by the most powerful nations, without its being attained, even at the present day.

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* NICARAGUA: Its People, Scenery, Mountains, and the proposed Interoceanic Canal. By E. G. SQUIER, late U. S. Charge d'Affaires to Central America. 2 vols. Appleton & Co. Publishers, New-York, 1852.

Before the discovery of America the eyes of all were turned toward the East, save those of Columbus; but the discovery of the new world immediately gave rise to the search for routes in a western direction. Such was the object of the voyage of the Cabots, of Vespucius, of Raleigh, and of Verazzano. These and others soon proved that there was no water route to India *through* the American continent; but the attempt to find a passage *around* it, through the Arctic Ocean, has never been discontinued.

Nicaragua, ever since the time of Balboa, who in the 15th century was the first to cross the Isthmus of Darien, and to plant the standard of Castile and Leon on the shores of the Pacific, has been a point of unceasing attention, as the only one where an artificial water communication could be best effected. But unfortunately the great obstacles to be encountered in such an enterprise, have not been so much those presented by nature in the form of lofty ranges of mountains, and an unhealthy tropical climate, as those presented by man himself—the indolent, ignorant, and unenterprising possessors of the soil of Nicaragua. The same may also be said of the Isthmus of Suez. If Nicaragua had been the territory of any other than the Spanish race, there would have been a canal across the isthmus half a century ago. The Spanish race in America are as destitute of enterprise as the Mohammedan rulers of Egypt.

We propose in the present paper to give a topographical and geographical sketch of Nicaragua, with reference particularly to the proposed interoceanic canal. For the facts and descriptions we are chiefly indebted to the work of Mr. Squier. The information afforded by Mr. Squier is reliable, he having visited personally every point of any consequence on the Nicaraguan Isthmus. He settles the question fully with regard to the practicability of a ship canal, his travels over all of the proposed routes having enabled him to affirm that the continuity of the Cordilleras is wholly interrupted, and admitting of several routes.

The canal will have to fix its northern terminus at the mouth of the San Juan river, as that stream abounds in rapids which prevent the passage of anything now but boats. "I have no hesitation in asserting," says Mr. Squier, "that the San Juan never can be made navigable for ships of any considerable size. Small steamers, with some improvements in the channel, might be run without much difficulty, and this is all that can be hoped for from this stream." The canal could only be constructed along its northern bank, from the sea to the lake. A small portion of the river near the lake of Nicaragua may possibly be used, but nothing short of a thorough survey could determine this. It is thought, by some, that the San Juan river was formerly navigable its whole length for frigates, because, according to the early Spanish accounts, vessels of that name formerly navigated that river; but it is known, from the accounts of Gage, who visited the river in 1670, that the vessels called "frigates," by the Spanish writers, were only boats or vessels of not more than 80 or 100 tons burthen, and that at that time even these could not get over the rapids without unloading.

That part of the proposed canal route, between the lake Nicaragua and the Caribbean Sea, although hitherto represented as presenting no difficulty, is declared by Mr. Squier to be the most difficult part of all. The idea that the rapids in the river can be easily removed is also erroneous; for "they are not formed by the simple aggregation of rocks, but by the interposition of beds of hornblende and very solid rock, in their natural position, or uplifted by subterranean forces."

The total length of the San Juan River, including windings, is 88 miles; the greatest depth is 42 feet; the least depth, 3 feet; and the average depth, 12 feet. The banks are generally low, or moderately low, and well timbered. In some parts they are high for a considerable distance. The longest rapids are those of Machuca, about half-way between the lake and the mouth of the river, which there spreads over a wide, rocky, crooked bed, with large rocks projecting above the surface of the stream, between which the water rushes with the greatest velocity. The descent is extremely dangerous, even for small boats. It was at these rapids that the steamer *Orus*, sent out by Mr. Vanderbilt, in 1850, to explore the river, was completely wrecked on the rocks in attempting to ascend. Another small steamer, the *Director*, sent out by the same gentleman afterwards, was got over the rapids finally, after great labor and expense, during "some weeks of time." So that it is clear that these rapids alone will be an insuperable obstacle to steam navigation. But there are four others above the Machuca Rapids. Those called the Rapids of the Castillo deserve, says Mr. Squier, the name of falls, and are nearly an insuperable obstacle to all kinds of boats. They have to be partly unloaded here, and then dragged up by main force. It takes more than three hours' time to drag a boat as many hundred yards. Above these falls, too, are the *Rapides del Toro*, three-fourths of a mile long, with a current of more than 200 yards per minute. From all this one can form some idea of the possibility of navigating the San Juan.

Lake Nicaragua next claims our attention. Its length is about 120 miles, and its greatest breadth from 50 to 60 miles. Mr. Baily, in his Central America, gives 105 miles, as its greatest length, and 45 as its greatest breadth. Other estimates differ from these. The depth, at the distance of 100 yards from the shore, is generally two fathoms, and in all parts beyond that distance from the shore, the depth varies from 5 to 15 fathoms. Louis Napoleon, in his pamphlet on the subject, quotes a Mr. A. G., as having sounded the lake in the middle, and found 45 fathoms or 270 feet. On the north side, says Mr. Squier, the water is comparatively shallow; also at its head and at its outlet.

The elevation of the surface of this lake above the Pacific is variously estimated. Thompson fixed it at 141 feet 8 inches; Mr. Baily, as the result of 351 levels, gives it as 128 feet 3 inches; Galisteo, a Spanish engineer, who investigated the subject in 1781, fixes it at 134 feet above the Pacific. The level varies with the season of the year, the amount of variation, as estimated by Mr. Baily, being about 6½ feet. The elevation of the surface of the lake above the Atlantic is 121 feet 9 inches, assuming that the Pacific, at low water in the Bay of Panama is 6½ feet lower than the Caribbean Sea at Chagres—a result arrived at by Mr. Lloyd. Baron Humboldt estimated the elevation of the Atlantic above the Pacific at from 20 to 22 feet.*

From Lake Nicaragua to the Pacific no less than five routes have been proposed—two directly from that lake to the Pacific, and three out of Lake Managua, west of Lake Nicaragua, the former lake emptying into the latter. We will examine briefly these different routes, taking them in their natural order, beginning with the most easterly route, which we will call No. 1. This extends from the mouth of the Sapoa river, at Lake Nicaragua, to the Bay of Salinas, on the Pacific. This route is but little known. Dr. Andraes Oersted, of Copenhagen, made a reconnoisance of it in 1848, and represents the whole distance as only 13½ miles; also, that the River Sapoa can be made navigable half that distance. Mr. Squier doubts all this. The Bay of Salinas, its Pacific terminus, is very fine. The state of Costa Rica made a grant of this route to the English in 1848, but they have deemed it impracticable.

Route No. 2 extends from the mouth of the Rio-Lajas, on Lake Nicaragua, to the Port of San Juan del Sur, on the Pacific. This is the line best known to the world in general, and the one on which nearly all practical operations have been conducted. It has been twice serveyed by the Spanish government, first in 1781. In 1838 Mr. John Baily surveyed it, under the direction of the federal government of Central America. There is a high unbroken ridge intervening between the lake and the ocean on this route. The length of the route is from 16 to 17 miles. According to Mr. Baily's estimates there would be, in this route, 13,989 yards of 209 feet average vertical cutting, and 14,420 yards of 30 feet average vertical cutting. By another route, having the same termini, there would be 14,700 yards of 108 feet average vertical cutting, and 14,330 yards of 30 feet average vertical cutting. This immense excavation, required through a mountain ridge, renders a canal entirely out of the question by route No. 2. No canal but one capable of floating the largest ships from ocean to ocean would satisfy the demands of commerce; but such a canal would cost at least fifty times as much as the cost of the greatest ship canals now in existence. The two largest ship canals are the Caledonian Canal, in Scotland, and the Holland Canal, from Amsterdam to Niewdiep. The following table shows the amount of excavation and cost of the canals:

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* Pol. Essay, i., p. 31.

	Excavation.		Cost.
Caledonian Canal,.	183,902,400	cubic feet,......	$5,000,000
Holland Canal, ...	422,400,000	"	4,800,000
Proposed canal from Lake Nicaragua to Pacific,....,................	4,927,577,800	"	250,000,000

This includes only the 14 miles of canal from Lake Nicaragua to San Juan del Sur, on the Pacific, saying nothing of the other part of the canal from Lake Nicaragua to the Caribbean Sea. So that there is no line as yet surveyed, on which a ship-canal would be practicable, on account of the immense cost. It has been proposed to construct a tunnel for part of the distance, where the height of land is greatest; but any canal, says Mr. Squier, designed for the passage of large ships, which requires the construction of a tunnel, is *prima facie* impracticable. The canal, on the route in question, would require a tunnel more than three miles long, with open cuttings, on either side of the summit of the mountain ridge, to the depth of 90 feet, before reaching the commencement of the tunnel! And this tunnel, too, must be of such magnitude as to admit the largest ship, masts and all erect. But there is another and an insuperable objection to the route in question, saying nothing of the tunnel: it is, that there is no water, on the heights to be passed over by locks, to supply the canal, for vessels will have to "lock down" to the lake on one side and to the ocean on the other. Mr. Baily, the engineer of the Central American government, fully aware of this difficulty, proposed, very wildly we think, that the deficiency of water might be supplied by *Artesian wells!!* Mr. Squier, who has traveled over the entire country, and route of the proposed canal, laughs at this proposition of Artesian wells, and says, that "the whole amount of water which it would be possible to collect from these sources, would not supply the simple *leakage*, to say nothing of the evaporation of a canal of the kind required."

Mr. Baily, who, like many others, was a very enthusiastic believer in interoceanic canals, stated that the Rio Lajas, which empties into Lake Nicaragua, could be used as a part of the canal for the distance of 5,460 yards from its mouth; but Mr. Baily omitted to inform the public, that the Rio Lajas is a running stream for only a part of the year;* that the bar at its mouth became dry land, and that all the water of the river that is not carried off by the powerful evaporation of the torrid zone, ceases to flow, and only stands about in stagnant lagoons. The lake is, moreover, so shallow, at the mouth of the river, that no vessel of any considerable size could even approach the bar. Such facts as these show with what caution we should receive all accounts coming from enthusiastic and interested persons. If men like Mr. Baily give such inaccurate statements regarding things that they have seen, what prodigious blunders are not those geographers liable to commit, who have never seen the countries they describe!

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* Sqnier's Nicaragua, vol. ii., p. 234.

Mr. Squier reminds map-makers and geographers, that the Spanish word *rio*, as used in Spanish America, may mean anything, from a mere rill up to the largest stream of water. The Spaniards dignify every mere brook in the country with the term *rio*. The term *monte* also has misled fire-side geographers; and accordingly they have laid down on their maps a mountain between Leon and Realejo, in Central America, because Spanish writers have called that region *Monte de San Juan*, *monte* generally being used to signify forest, uncultivated country. The whole country between Leon and Realejo is, in fact, a dead plain.

The port of San Juan del Sur, the Pacific terminus, is represented by Mr. Squier as small, and quite inadequate as a terminus port for a great ship-canal. He moreover represents it as not well protected against prevailing winds, which render that part of the coast difficult of access.

The other three routes proposed for a canal are upon Lake Managua, But before describing these we will gather from Mr. Squier some information regarding the passage from Lake Nicaragua to Lake Managua.

A shallow arm of Lake Nicaragua, called the Estero de Panaloya, extends westward to within four miles of Lake Managua. This is from 6 to 15 feet deep, with low banks and a muddy bottom. The remaining four miles to Lake Managua is the dry bed of what was once a river; so that Lake Managua does not empty its waters into Lake Nicaragua; nor has it any outlet.* Mr. Squier thinks that a canal could be made over this four miles by using a few locks, as Lake Managua is higher than Lake Nicaragua; but the greatest difficulty would be to deepen the Estero de Panaloya, so as to admit ships, the bottom being in many places rocky.

Lake Managua is about 50 miles long, and 30 miles wide. Its surface is about 16 feet above that of Lake Nicaragua. The water near the so-called outlet is shallow. At the distance of three-fourths of a mile from the shore Mr. Squier found the water not exceeding two fathoms in depth. There are no large streams flowing into it from the Pacific side. The Rio Grande, and others of considerable size, flow into it from the north. These rivers vary with the seasons, and do not pour into it more water than disappears from its surface by evaporation, unless it has a subterranean outlet, which is an opinion entertained by the people of the country. Mr. Squier thinks the opinion untenable. Beyond a mile from the shore the lake is thought to be sufficiently deep to float the largest vessels.

The country between Lake Managua and the Pacific is much more favorable for a canal than that between Nicaragua and the Pacific; for near the head of the former lake the mountain range running along the Pacific coast is continually interrupted. Between the head or western extremity of the lake and the Pacific there is only a broad plain, rising but a few feet above the lake, and thence descending in a gentle slope to the ocean.* Three routes for a canal across this plain have been suggested.

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. ii., p. 237.

1. The Tamarinda route, from the Bay of Moabita, on the south side of the lake, to the port of Tamarinda on the Pacific. This is the shortest of the three routes, the distance being from 15 to 18 miles. The objections to this route are, that the water of the lake at the northern terminus is too shallow, and the port of Tamarinda not a proper termination for a terminus. Mr. Squier does not give any satisfactory reasons for this latter objection. He simply says, that "the port of Tamarinda is small and tolerably well protected." The entire route between the sea and the lake is level, offering no insuperable obstacle to a canal.

2. The Realejo route is the next in order westward, extending from the most western arm of Lake Managua, in nearly a due western direction, to the well-known and excellent bay of Realejo, on the Pacific, and passing a little to the south of the city of Leon, which is about midway between the lake and bay. The bay of Realejo is safe and commodious, with water from 3 to 9 fathoms deep. The volcano of El Viejo, 6000 feet high, and a little to the northeast of the port, guides the mariner unerringly to its entrance. This route for a canal is about forty-five miles long. It is possible that the Telica river, which empties into the bay may be used to shorten the distance, but this can only be determined by actual survey. Mr. Squier reports very favorably regarding this route, and declares that there is no obstacle to be overcome of any great magnitude. The deepest cutting on the route, allowing the canal proposed to be 30 feet deep, would be 80 feet deep, and this only for a short distance. This is nothing when compared to the cutting in the Arles and Bouc Canal, where the excavation for a distance of 2289 yards is from 130 to 162 feet deep.

3. There is still one more route, from the northwestern part of Lake Managua to the Bay of Fonseca, on the Pacific. This route, though little known to the public, presents advantages superior to those of any other route, in the opinion of Mr. Squier. By this route the Canal would only be from 15 to 20 miles long, extending across the plain of Conejo, which is lower even than that of Leon, to an arm of the Bay of Fonseca, which arm, called El Estero Real, is "as broad as the East River at New York, and has, for most of its extent, an ample depth of water. At 30 miles above the bay it has 50 feet. There is a narrow bar at its mouth, upon which, at low tide, there are but about three fathoms; the tides rise, however, nearly 10 feet, and with artificial aid, the bar could, doubtless, be passed at all

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*Squier's Nicaragua, vol. ii., p. 239.

times. This Estero is one of the most beautiful natural channels that can be imagined, preserving for a long distance a very nearly uniform width of from 300 to 400 yards. Its banks are lined with mangroves, with a dense back-ground of other trees.*

The Estero Real was explored in 1838, by Captain Belcher, who sailed up it 30 miles, in a vessel drawing 10 feet of water. It is said to be navigable 60 miles.

Mr. Squier says "it may be safely asserted, that a passage from the Lake of Managua to the sea is entirely feasible;" and he gives the preference to this latter route over the plain of Conejo to the Estero Real.

The Pacific terminus of this route, the Bay of Fonseca, is truly magnificent. It "is equaled only by that of San Francisco, and may be described as a grand harbor in which all the vessels of the world might ride in entire security." It much resembles that of San Francisco in position and form; the entrance from the sea is, however, broader. Its entire length within the land is not far from 70 miles, and its breadth 40 miles. The three states of San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Honduras, have ports upon it. In respect to trade, the principal port on the main land is that of La Union, in San Salvador. All the adjacent coasts are of unbounded fertility, and possess an unlimited supply of timber. The sides of the mountains, particularly of the volcano of San Miguel, are covered with oak and pine, suitable for building and repairing ships. Coal is said to occur about 60 miles from the port of La Union, on the banks of the Rio Semper; the roads to the beds leading through a level country. The bay embraces several islands of considerable size and beauty, surrounded by water of such depth as to enable vessels of the largest size to approach close in shore. The most important of these, from the circumstance of its size, and the fact that it commands and is the key to the entire bay, is the island of Tigre, belonging to Honduras. This island was the headquarters and depot of Drake and other piratical adventurers, during their operations in the South Sea. It is about 20 miles in circumference, level near the shore, but rising regularly to a cone in the centre, thus affording almost every variety of air and climate desirable. Upon this island is situated the free port of Amopola, recently established, where there are a few storehouses and dwellings. The rest of the island is almost wholly uninhabited. The possession of this island, and consequent control of the Gulf of Fonseca, by any great maritime power, would enable it to exercise a command over the commerce of the western part of the continent like that which the possession of Gibraltar by the English gives them to exercise over that of Europe.†

Mr. Squier assumes that no use can be made of the San Juan, the outlet of Lake Nicaragua, and that it will be necessary to construct a canal the whole distance from the lake to the Atlantic.

As no complete survey has as yet been made on any of the routes proposed for an interoceanic canal, it is now impossible for any one to say what the cost of such a canal would be. It is a mere matter of conjecture, and estimates have been made varying from six to thirty millions of dollars. Mr. Squier thinks that $100,000,000 may not be far from the probable expense. Mere reconnoisances of the routes have thus far been made; but they have established, beyond a doubt, the topographical possibility of a canal across the isthmus; and that the benefits and profits of such a canal would justify any government in the expenditure of $100,000,000 for such a purpose can hardly be doubted.

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. ii., p. 244.

† Ib. vol. ii., p. 243.

By way of recapitulation, and to bring together into one view all the proposed routes, we annex the following table:—

Route from San Juan to the Pacific.	Length of Rio San Juan.	Distance on Lake Nicaragua.	From L. Nicaragua to Pacific.	From L. Nicaragua to Managua.	Distance on L. Managua.	From L. Managua to Pacific.	Actual Canalization.	Total Length.
To Bay of Salinas	70	50	13	—	—	—	83	133
" San Juan del Sur	70	60	16	—	—	—	86	146
" Tamarinda	70	110	—	4	50	16	90	250
" Realejo	70	110	—	4	50	45	119	279
" Estero Real	70	110	—	4	50	20	194	254

Although repeated attempts to open a canal across the isthmus have been made by different nations ever since the latter part of the last century, there seems to be no better prospect now of accomplishing the work than half a century ago. All attempts, and they have been many, have signally failed. The right of way, with extensive privileges, has several times been granted; but here all attempts have stopped. No company or nation has even gone so far as to make a thorough scientific survey of the entire route in any one proposed line. It has been invariably the case, that when either nations or companies concerned came to the question of actual operations and money, they failed. The whole history of the negotiations that have been carried on in reference to the proposed canal, exhibits only a series of brilliant schemes, which survived but a short period, and then sunk to rise no more—for the want of money.

The magnitude of such an undertaking requires the treasury of such a government as that of the United States or of Great Britain; but we of all nations are the most interested. The work should be undertaken by our government. We, as a nation, are able to undertake it, and there would be no difficulty in the way as far as regards Nicaragua. That government has repeatedly offered the right of way, and that too on the most liberal terms. Her last offer of the right was made to our government, or rather to our citizens, in 1849, while Mr. Squier was our *Chargé d'Affaires* in Central America. A treaty of commerce and friendship with the United States was also negotiated at the same time, and ratified by Nicaragua, requiring both governments to "protect and defend" the American Atlantic and Pacific Ship Canal company, in the full and perfect enjoyment of the canal from the time of its commencement until 80 years after its completion, 12 years being allowed to complete the work. This treaty was forwarded to our government in due time; but in consequence of some of its provisions, calculated to secure the territorial integrity of Nicaragua, England took offence, supposing it to be hostile to its pretensions on the Musquito shore. Every exertion possible was made by the latter government to prevent the ratification of the treaty by Nicaragua, but without success. Nicaragua, without a dissenting voice, ratified both the treaty and the canal contract with our citizens, on the 23d of September, 1849. On its arrival at Washington, it was approved by General Taylor and his cabinet and sent to the senate. Here every possible means of defeating it was used by the British envoy. Whether British influence had any effect or not we cannot say; but one thing is certain, that the treaty was treated with neglect by the senate, and laid aside to make room for the unfortunate slavery discussion, that then distracted the whole country and engrossed the entire attention of Congress. The British envoy displayed the utmost zeal and activity in the matter, and sent letter after letter to the state department, expostulating, and ridiculing the idea of "General Taylor's administration *condescending* to enter into treaty relations with Nicaragua. Congress adjourned without doing anything with the treaty. The death of General Taylor and the formation of a new cabinet was deemed by Mr. Bulwer highly favorable to the success of English opposition, which was kept up until a second session of Congress passed without acting on the treaty, and nothing unto this day has ever been done with it.

A most palpable and melancholy evidence of the weakness, not to say imbecility, of the cabinet which succeeded that of General Taylor, is exhibited in the convention, known as the "Clayton and Bulwer Treaty," concluded by our government with Great Britain on the 19th of April, 1850. This treaty, which Mr. Clayton negotiated and the United States Senate ratified, under the influence of as complete a delusion as John Bull ever wrought upon any personage or treaty-ratifying body, has completely defeated the carrying into effect of the canal contract by the company. It required that company to "present evidence of sufficient capital subscribed to accomplish the undertaking," within one year from the 19th of April, 1850, which Mr. Bulwer knew, and which Mr. Clayton might have known, to be an impossibility. The delusion of Mr. Clayton consisted in supposing that he had caught the shrewd Mr. Bulwer in a convention which compelled John Bull to surrender all his right and title to the Musquito coast, and to their so-called protectorate, the Musquito kingdom. This was regarded as a victory, and it was so proclaimed throughout the country. Mr. Bulwer immediately opened their eyes to this delusion, the moment the treaty was ratified by both powers, by showing, that so far from requiring England to abandon the Musquito shore, it actually recognizes the existence of an English protectorate in Central America, and only requires that England shall not make that protectorate an obstacle to the construction of an interoceanic canal. Any one who will read the treaty will readily perceive that such a construction is admissible.

We have been surprised to see all of the leading journals of the country, with the exception, perhaps, of the National Intelligencer, announce that this Clayton and Bulwer treaty would put an end to the dominion of England in Central America. No doubt Mr. Clayton intended that as the result of it, but he and the United States Senate were completely hoodwinked and outwitted—to the shame of the whole country—by the shrewd diplomacy of the British envoy.

We have digressed thus far on the subject of this treaty, because by it the last attempt to construct an interoceanic canal has been defeated, and, if anything, the obnoxious protectorate of Great Britain on the Musquito shore more firmly established. Such a disgraceful result shows, either that British influence in Washington, at the time of the ratification of the treaty, was considerable, or that British diplomacy is greatly in the advance of American.

We have no faith in private companies for the undertaking of so gigantic a work as an interoceanic canal; but our government is fully competent to undertake such a work, and is, at the same time, of all nations the most interested in it. Our government ought to engage in it alone, regardless of Great Britain, who cares much less about the canal, than about checking the progress of our republic. Time will reveal the truth of this, if it has not already revealed it.

It has become a prevalent idea, and one recognized, too, by the Clayton and Bulwer treaty, that England is equally interested with the United States in the opening of the canal, and that therefore we, as a nation, should we construct the canal, ought not to enjoy any exclusive privileges. This we conceive to be a great error, for England is not, commercially, equally interested with the United States in such a canal, and therefore ought not to claim, as she has, equal control of it with ourselves. This is another weak point in the diplomacy of Mr. Clayton. Great Britain is allowed by the treaty to have the same control of the canal as the United States, when, in fact, she is but little, if any, interested, commercially, in such a canal. Let us examine the extent of England's commercial interest in an interoceanic canal across Nicaragua. It is generally supposed that such a canal would immensely benefit England, and all Europe, by shortening the route to India, when the fact is, that England is already 1700 miles nearer to India, by the routes her ships usually travel, than she would be by the way of the Nicaragua canal. The following table will exhibit, at one view, the real state of the case, and show how little Europe will be benefited by such a canal. We take it from the work of Mr. Squier.

	Via Cape of Good Hope.	Via Proposed Canal.	Net Gain.	Net Loss.
From England to Canton	15,600	15,800	200	—
" Calcutta	13,500	17,400	3,900	—
" Singapore	14,300	16,600	2,300	—
From New-York to Canton	17,100	12,600	—	4,500
" Calcutta	15,000	14,000	—	1,000
" Singapore	15,800	13,200	—	2,600

England is now 1700 miles nearer the centre of Asiatic trade than our Atlantic ports. By the above it will be seen that England would gain nothing in point of distance, but would lose much by a voyage to India through a Nicaraguan canal. England evidently cares nothing about that canal in a commercial point of view, since without the canal it has already greatly the advantage of us in respect to Asiatic trade. "The Englishman," says Lieut Maury, "meets the American in all the markets of the world, except those of the Gulf and Caribbean Sea, with the advantage of ten days and upwards." England's trade with the western coast of South America would be the only branch of her commerce that the canal would benefit.

How is it, then, that England makes herself so conspicuous in all attempts made, no matter by whom, to open a canal across the isthmus! It is simply because she is disposed to interfere politically with the movements of all nations. Her interference in our last attempt to undertake the Nicaragua canal, by defeating the ratification of Mr. Squier's convention between the U. S. and Nicaragua, and substituting in its place the Clayton treaty, was disgraceful to this country, and has filled with surprise and shame all of our citizens who have understood the entire history of the matter. Is it indeed true, that we cannot negotiate a treaty with even our nearest American neighbors, without the intermeddling of Great Britain, and that, too, in the case of a mere commercial treaty, in which, commercially, England has no concern? Even in our treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo we suffered her interference. Mr. Squier very truly remarks, that "the clause in the treaty of peace with Mexico, providing that none of the Mexican states shall be admitted into the American Union, except with the consent of the Mexican central government, was a suggestion jointly made to the Mexican Commissioners by the British and French Legations, with what disinterested object the reader can easily divine, although he may not comprehend the folly of a Senate which ratified the clause."* It is high time that this country should be aroused to a proper sense of its own dignity, and of its independence of all other nations, and that she fearlessly assert that independence.

The table, which we have before given, shows the immense advantages that a Nicaraguan canal would afford this country; but it would seem, from the odious Clayton treaty, that before we can construct such a canal we must consult England, who has no honorable interest in it, as to the mode of doing so, and as to the mode of using the canal after it is constructed! We cannot comprehend how it could be, that the United States of America, wishing ardently a canal across the isthmus, were obliged to consult England on the subject, and to negotiate with her a treaty in regard to it. If Nicaragua had been English territory it would all have been perfectly right; but owning nothing there, and being only an intruder in that quarter of the world, the Clayton and Bulwer treaty was a tacit admission of our fear of the power of Great Britain.

We turn from this unpleasant branch of our subject, to notice the *extent*, *topography*, *climate*, *population*, *and agricultural and mineral productions of Nicaragua.*

Nicaragua, under the Spanish rule in Central America, was one of the principal provinces of the old vice-royalty of Guatemala, which in 1821, when it abandoned its allegiance to Spain, consisted of the provinces of Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Chiapas, and Veragua, which last state now belongs to New Granada. Chiapas has fallen into the hands of Mexico, and the remaining provinces are now independent states.

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. ii., p. 289.

Nicaragua proper comprises the same extent of territory as when a province. It is bounded on the east by the Caribbean Sea, from the Colorado mouth of the San Juan River to Cape Gracios á Dios; on the west by the Pacific Ocean, from the Gulf of Nicoya to that of Fonseca, embracing about one-third of the latter; on the north by Honduras, by which it is separated by the river Vauks, or Segovia, from its mouth at Cape Gracios á Dios for about two-thirds of its length, and by a right line thence to the river Roman, and thence also by a right line to the Gulf of Fonseca. The southern boundary, separating it from Costa Rica, is a right line extending from the mouth of the river Salto de Nicoya or Alvarado, which empties into the Gulf of Nicoya, to the lower mouth of the San Juan River. The state of Nicaragua is therefore between 83° 20′ and 87° 30′ west longitude from Greenwich, and between 9° 45′ and 15° of north latitude. It has an area of about 59,000 square miles, which makes it about one-fourth larger than the state of Louisiana.

Such, we say, is Nicaragua proper; but it is necessary to state that much of her territory is disputed by Great Britain and Costa Rica. The former has set up a claim to more than one-half of the territory of Nicaragua, "on behalf of the supposititious king of the Musquitoes."* Great Britain, without the shadow of a title, either by purchase or gift, to any portion of Central America, has feloniously seized on the whole coast from Cape Honduras to the northern limits of New Grenada. On the south, too, Costa Rica has laid claim to a large section, including the entire province of Guanacaste, and also to the entire country south of lake Nicaragua and the River San Juan.

The geographical and topographical features of Nicaragua are remarkable and highly interesting. Near the western boundary of the state the great Cordilleras chain separates into two branches, the northern running towards the Caribbean Sea, and the southern following the coast of the Pacific. Between these two branches lies a spacious basin, containing the great lakes of Managua and Nicaragua, and the San Juan River. The Pacific range often rises into lofty volcanic peaks, and preserves a nearly uniform distance from the coast of from ten to twenty miles. The two branches unite again on Costa Rica, the northern one crossing the San Juan River, about fifty miles from its mouth. The Pacific range becomes elevated in Costa Rica to the height of from 5,000 to 11,000 feet, and along its whole extent it exhibits, at short intervals, either active volcanoes or extinct craters and beds of lava. There is no country on the globe containing so many volcanoes. There are no less than fifteen laid down on Mr. Squier's map of Nicaragua, and these all within a state but a little larger than Louisiana. Their lofty cones towering above the clouds are the first objects that strike the eye of the mariner at a great distance from the coast, and serve as prominent landmarks guiding to the ports on the coast.

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. i., p. 22.

The great basin of the lakes of Nicaragua is about 300 miles long and 150 wide, presenting generally broad, beautiful and fertile plains. We have elsewhere described lakes Managua and Nicaragua. Nothing can be more beautiful, grand and sublime, than the natural scenery which meets the eye of the traveler on and about these lakes. Out of their waters project active volcanoes, towering to the clouds and sending forth smoke and flames. Broad, level and fertile plains, covered with luxuriant verdure, and of almost unlimited productiveness, slope gently up from their shores; while far in the back-ground rise the lofty chains of the Cordilleras, covered with verdure up to the point where the cold of the higher regions of the atmosphere forbid vegetation.

Out of Lake Managua rises boldly the giant volcano of Momotombo; its bare and lofty summit, which no man has ever reached, 7,000 feet high, and covered with smoke, attesting the continued existence of those internal fires which have seamed its steep sides with rivers of liquid fire, and which still send forth hot and sulphurous springs at its base. The volcano of Momotombita, a cone so regular that it seems a work of art, also rises from the midst of the lake, "covered with a dense forest, under the shades, and within the deep recesses of which, worn by the storms of ages, stand the rude and frowning statues of the gods of aboriginal superstition, raised there long before European feet trod the soil of America, and to which the mind of the Christianized Indian still reverts with a mysterious reverence."*

The great feature of the country is Lake Nicaragua, with its numerous beautiful islands, its fertile shores covered with thousands of cattle, its immense volcanoes, and its remains of works of art, the relics of a people much advanced in civilization, who, centuries ago, densely populated the whole country. The largest island in the lake is Madeira, or Omotepec, wholly occupied by Indians, and distinguished by two immense cones visible from every part of the lake, and from the Pacific Ocean. These cones are called Madeira and Omotepec. The word *tepec*, so common in Mexico, signifies *mountain*, and *omo*, *two*. Hence the name of the island, with its two mountains. The cone called Omotepec is the highest in Nicaragua. The summit is generally enveloped in clouds. All travelers speak in the highest terms of admiration of the extreme beauty and grandeur of the scenery of Lake Nicaragua, which "is unquestionably," says Mr. Squier, "in all respects, one of the finest bodies of water on the continent, needing only to be made easy of access to become as famous a resort of the lovers of the grand and beautiful in nature, as any now known in the Old or New World."

No country in the world exceeds Nicaragua in the beauty and sublimity of lake and mountain. From Lake Nicaragua may be seen, from the same spot, some thirteen or fourteen volcanoes, many of which are more than 5,000 feet high. Momotombo, in Lake Managua, is 7,000 feet high. If the access to the great basin of Nicaragua were easy, as it will be, probably, in a few years, nothing will be more delightful or instructive than an excursion to that region of the world; for there all that is beautiful, grand, and sublime in natural scenery, and all that is best calculated to impress the mind with a deep sense of that tremendous, mysterious, and awful Power, that presides over matter, is exhibited on all sides.

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. i. p. 25.

The San Juan is the principal river of Nicaragua; and in addition to what we have already said of this stream, with reference only to the proposed interoceanic canal, we would add something more, in order to give the reader a clearer idea of its real character. It is certainly a magnificent stream, though its capabilities have been greatly exaggerated. The amount of water which flows through its channel is at all times considerable, but varying greatly in amount at different seasons of the year. During the "rainy season," that is, from May to October, its volume of water is nearly doubled. Its principal tributaries are the San Carlos and the Serapiqui, flowing from Costa Rica. It has no branches on the north side. From the port of San Carlos, at the outlet of the lake, to the Rapides del Toro, a distance of twenty miles, the banks are generally low, and covered with palms, canes, and a species of high coarse grass called *gamalote*. The river here sometimes overflows, and the shores, for a considerable distance back, are low and swampy. From the mouth of the river, the banks, for a distance of 18 miles, are low and swampy, as also the face of the whole country to that distance from the Atlantic coast. Lagoons, too, are very numerous. The lands are nevertheless fertile, and capable of producing in the utmost luxuriance rice, sugar, and those other productions requiring moist and fertile soils. From the vertex of the delta, 18 miles from the mouth, to the Rapides del Toro, a distance of more than 50 miles, the banks of the river vary from 6 to 20 feet in height, and are densely wooded—the forest coming down to the water's edge. The traveler in the boats is so completely shut in by vegetation, that it is impossible to discover the character of the country back. At intervals hills and high grounds are discerned coming down to the water's edge. At the mouth of the San Carlos there are hills 2,000 feet high, contracting the river very much, and forming a narrow passage, the entrance to which somewhat resembles the opening of the highlands of the Hudson.

In some places the banks of the river are rocky, and nowhere are they as crumbling as those of the Ohio and Mississippi. The bed is permanent, and islands abound in hundreds. The width of the stream varies from 100 to 400 yards, and its depth from 2 to 20 feet.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Nicaragua, on the Atlantic declivity, is unquestionably warmer than in the interior, or upon the borders of the Pacific—more humid and rainy, and more sickly. Out of the valley of the San Juan, and beyond the lagoons of the sea-coast, the climate is unsurpassed in salubrity by that of any equal extent of territory within the tropics, or perhaps in the world. The year has but two seasons, the rainy and the dry. The wet season commences in May and lasts till November, during which time, but usually near the commencement or close, rains of some days' duration occasionally occur, and showers are common, but do not often happen except late in the afternoon, about four o'clock, or in the night. These showers seldom continue long, and often days and weeks elapse, during the so called "rainy season," without a cloud obscuring the sky. The popular opinion regarding the "rainy season" within the tropics is quite erroneous, at least as far as regards Central America. It is commonly believed, by the people of the temperate zones, that during the "rainy season" within the tropics the rain seldom ceases to fall, either in torrents or in drizzling rain. This is a great error. "Probably but little more than one-half of the amount of rain," says Mr. Squier, "which falls in the latitude of New-York, during the same period, falls during these six months in Nicaragua."

Throughout the "rainy season" the verdure and the crops which, during the dry season, become sere and withered, appear in full luxuriance; the temperature is very equable, differing but little in localities, but preserving great uniformity over the whole country except in the mountainous regions. The range of the thermometer is from 78° to 88°, in rare instances sinking to 70° during the night and rising to 90° in the afternoon. From May to October the average height of the thermometer is about 80° Fahr. There is almost constantly a cool and pleasant breeze, generally from the northeast. The nights are delightful for sleeping.

During the dry season in January the temperature is less, the nights positively cool, and occasionally the winds are chilly. The sky is cloudless, and trifling showers fall at rare intervals. The fields become dry, cattle are driven to the hills and forests for pasturage, and the dust in the towns becomes almost insupportable. It penetrates everywhere, permeating even through the tiled roofs in showers, and sweeping in clouds through the unglazed windows. The dust is all that renders the dry season unpleasant. It is esteemed more healthy than the wet.

The effect of the dry season on vegetation is practically that of our winter. During that period the exuberance of the vegetable growth is checked, and the ephemeral vegetation which, where the rain falls for the entire year, goes on accumulating, forming dense dark jungles, is entirely dried up, and thus the health of the country promoted. During the dry season, also, nearly the whole country is burned over, so that the forests for a great part of the year are nearly as open and penetrable as our own.*

Population.—Nicaragua is divided into six departments, and has a population of 264,000, according to the census of 1846; these figures cannot, however, be relied on as quite exact, since the census attempted in 1846 was obstructed, the people supposing it to be preliminary to some military conscription, or new tax.

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. i. pp. 29–31.

It is mentioned as a singular fact, by Mr. Squier, that the females greatly exceed the males in number. In the Department Occidental, having a population of 90,000, the females are to the males as three to two. This result is supposed to be accounted for by the civil commotions that have so long agitated the country.

The mass of the population of Nicaragua consists of civilized Indians, the aborigines, and those of Spanish and negro stock crossed with them. The whites of pure European blood form but a small part of the whole population. Mr. Squier divides the population as follows:

Whites	25,000
Negroes	15,000
Indians	80,000
Mixed	130,000
Total	250,000

Most of these live in towns. They are chiefly engaged in agricultural pursuits, and go daily from two to six miles to labor in the fields, starting before day, in the morning, and returning at night. The roads through the country are often mere paths—so obscure that none but the natives can follow them—leading to plantations and villages pretty equally scattered over the country. The dwellings of the inhabitants are usually of canes, thatched with palms. Many of them are open at the sides—mere sheds—and with no other floor than the bare earth. Some of them have tiled roofs, with other improvements, and are whitewashed. Such as these latter are occupied by the large proprietors.

Most of the dwellings in the towns are of the same character as those just described. The residences of the better classes, however, are built of adobes, one story high, and inclosing large courts, entered under archways often of beautiful construction. Spacious corridors, shaded by orange trees, run around the courtyards, upon which the rooms open, rendering the apartments exceedingly pleasant.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.—The agricultural resources of Nicaragua are immense, though, as yet, they are but imperfectly developed. Only so much of the soil is brought into cultivation as is necessary to supply the wants of the inhabitants; but the amount of cultivated lands could be increased to almost any extent, for the forests are easily removed, and the soil is so fertile, and the climate so favorable, that no artificial aids to vegetation are required. The raising of cattle is extensively pursued, many of the estates having not less than 10,000 or 15,000 head of cattle each. Among the staple productions of the state, produced in great perfection, are sugar, cotton, coffee, indigo, tobacco, rice, and Indian corn.

SUGAR.—The sugar-cane of Nicaragua is a native plant of the country, quite different from the cane cultivated in the West Indies and the United States. It is said to be equally productive with the foreign species. It is softer, more slender, and contains more and stronger juice, in proportion to the size of the cane, than the Asiatic variety. *Two crops are annually raised, and under favorable circumstances three.* The cane does not require re-planting *but once in twelve or fourteen years.* The best kind of sugar produced is nearly as white as the refined sugar of commerce, the crystals being large and hard. The greater part of the sugar produced in the country is merely the juice of the cane boiled till it crystallizes, without being cleared of the molasses. It is stated that the expense of producing such sugar is about $1.25 per 101 pounds. Sugar of this kind is exported to Peru and other parts of South America. The sugar-planters of Nicaragua also manufacture a species of rum, called *aguardiente*, which they find more profitable than sugar. It is impossible to say what amount of sugar is produced in Nicaragua, but the amount exported is estimated at 200,000 pounds.

Cotton.—Cotton superior to that of Brazil may be produced in any quantity in Nicaragua. As many as 50,000 bales of 300 lbs. each have been exported in a year. At present but little, if any, is sent out of the state. What is produced is consumed by the natives. The Nicaragua cotton has always borne a high character abroad.

Coffee.—Coffee equal to any in the world may be produced in any quantity in Nicaragua, and nothing but the want of facilities for getting it to market has prevented it from being extensively cultivated. This is, indeed, the great difficulty which opposes all the agricultural pursuits of the state. The production of coffee in Nicaragua is also greatly diminished by the circumstance that chocolate is the common beverage of the people, coffee being but little used by them. The same, we believe, is also true of all of Central America, and of some parts of Mexico. The raising of coffee is very profitable; the expense of producing a quintal of 101 pounds being only $2 50, while the coffee of Nicaragua is worth in the English market $12 50 per cwt. Laborers' wages are 25 cents per day.

Indigo was formerly cultivated to a great extent, but of late years it has much fallen off. Fine indigo estates in many parts of Nicaragua have been entirely abandoned, owing, we suppose, to the continued political agitations of the country. The plant cultivated for indigo is the *indigofera*, a triennial plant, supposed to be a native of America. The indigo of Nicaragua is of very superior quality. There were exported formerly 5,000 bales of 150 pounds each annually; now the amount is only about 2,000. Before the revolution, under the government of Spain, the single state of San Salvador produced from 8,000 to 10,000 bales annually. Two acres of ground produce from 100 to 120 pounds, at a cost of from $30 to $40, including the cost of clearing the land and all other expenses.

Tobacco.—Nicaragua produces a large amount of tobacco, of a very superior quality. Of late years, what is not consumed in the country is shipped to California. There is no limit to the extent to which it may be cultivated. The tobacco of Honduras and San Salvador, says Mr. Squier, is equal to the best Havana for cigars.

Indian Corn.—This flourishes luxuriantly, and three crops may be raised on the same ground annually. It is the staff of life for both man and beast in Nicaragua, the stalks being the only fodder that the cattle and horses eat. As however it is always growing, the supply is abundant. ' The extreme abundance of Indian corn in Nicaragua may be inferred from the fact, that a *fanega* of Leon (about five English bushels) of shelled corn sold, in 1849, for only $1.

WHEAT and all the small grains, as well as the fruits of the temperate climes, flourish in the elevated regions of the country. In the northern parts of Nicaragua bordering on Honduras, the climate is very nearly the same as that of our southern states.

RICE is abundant in Nicaragua, and may be cultivated to almost any extent. It is much used by the inhabitants, and sells at from $1 50 to $2 per cwt.

CACAO is an article of general consumption, and is much cultivated. The cacao of Guatemala is of a superior quality, only equaled by that of Soconosco on the coast of Guatemala, and which was once monopolized for the use of the royal establishment of Spain. Such is the demand for it by the inhabitants that it commands a high price, and is not exported. The cacao or chocolate tree is a species of Theobroma, a native of the West Indies. It grows about 20 feet high, bearing pods which are oval and pointed. The nuts or seeds are numerous, and lodged in a white pithy substance. *Chocolate* is made from the seeds by roasting them, and making them into a paste with sugar and cinnamon or vanilla, furnishing a beverage devoid of the ill properties of tea and coffee, but apt to disagree with dyspeptics on account of the oil which it contains. *Cacao* is another preparation of these seeds. It is said to be made from the fragments of the seed coats, mixed with portions of the kernels. It is somewhat astringent. There is no reason, says Mr. Squier, why cacao should not become an article of large trade and a source of great wealth. To get a cacao plantation into full operation requires time and a considerable outlay. The unsettled state of Nicaragua prevents investments, and hence the diminished production of cacao. Under a stable government the trade in cacao would become immense. The trees yield two crops a year, and it sells from $15 to $20 per quintal. The Guayaquil cacao is of an inferior quality, and only brings from $5 to $6 per quintal.

Nearly all the edibles and fruits of the tropics are produced naturally in Nicaragua, or may be cultivated in great perfection. Plantains, bananas, beans, chile, tomatoes, bread-fruit, arrow-root, ocra, citrons, oranges, limes, lemons, pine-apples, (the delicious white Guayaquil, as well as the yellow variety,) mamays, anonas or chirimoyas, guavas, cocoa-nuts, and a hundred other varieties of plants and fruits abound.

Among the vegetable productions of commerce produced in Nicaragua are sarsaparilla, anota, aloes, ipecacuanha, ginger, vanilla, Peruvian bark, cowhage, copal, gum-arabic, copaiva, caoutchouc, dragon's blood, and vanglo or oil plant. Among the valuable trees are mahogany, logwood, Brazil-wood, lignum-vitæ, fustic, yellow sanders, pine, dragon's blood tree, silk cotton tree, oak, copal tree, cedar, button-wood, rose-wood, Nicaragua-wood, calabash, &c. &c. Brazil-wood, cedar and mahogany are found in inexhaustible quantities.

MINERAL RESOURCES.—These are very great. Gold, silver, copper, lead and iron are found in considerable quantities in various parts of Nicaragua, particularly in the northern parts. The district of Segovia, says Mr. Squier, is probably not exceeded in its mineral wealth by any equal portion of the continent. Since the days of the Spanish rule, the working of the mines, as well as all other branches of industry, has greatly declined. It is a matter of reproach to Mexico, Central America, and all the Spanish countries in America that have thrown off the yoke of Spain, that they have substituted for the oppressive rule against which they rebelled nothing that has bettered their condition. The government of Spain had the merit, at least, of greater stability, and of promoting an amount of industry and commerce that has almost entirely disappeared since the expulsion of the viceroys. All subsequent governments have been only, for the most part, despicable military despotisms, characterized by every species of misrule and injustice—preventing all enterprise among the inhabitants, and causing all branches of industry to decline apace. Under good governments all these countries would soon become immensely wealthy. Should Mexico and Central America become united to this Republic—and the day may not be far distant—the immense agricultural and mineral resources of those countries would cause a vast tide of Anglo-American emigration to set toward them, and the developments of wealth and comfort that would be made in a few years would astonish the world. Under the present race those countries will never be anything.

It is now quite impossible to say what the production of the mines of Nicaragua and Central America is, it being impossible to obtain any reliable statistics. A portion of the gold and silver produced finds its way to the Balize, and other portions to Truxillo and Omoa, in Honduras, and to the ports of Nicaragua. There is but one mint in Central America, which is in Costa Rica. It coins principally gold dollar pieces to the amount of from $50,000 to $100,000 annually, but these are short of weight, and therefore not generally current. They are worth about 93 cents.

Humboldt states that the mining districts of Central America produced nothing at the time he wrote; but it is certain that formerly the precious metals of Central America were produced in large quantities. For the 15 years anterior to 1810, gold and silver had been coined there to the amount of $2,193,832; and for the 15 years posterior to 1810, to the amount of $3,810,382. But besides this, great quantities of these metals were at the same time exported uncoined. Such is the report of the master of the old mint of Guatemala in 1825. He estimates the actual products of the mines at ten times the amount coined, which would give more than $50,000,000 for the 30 years preceding 1825. That Central America was formerly rich in the precious metals is proved by the accounts of Gage and other travelers, and by the fact that the buccaneers were in the habit of frequently visiting and plundering the mines."*

Dunlap, who has paid particular attention to the mineral wealth of

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. i. p. 39.

Central America, observes that "in no part of the world are mines so generally found in nearly every district. Many of them were successfully worked after the conquest and during the Spanish dominion. Besides the mines of gold and silver, there are others containing lead in nearly a pure state, the ore yielding 90 per cent. of metal. In some specimens 25 per cent. of silver is said to be mixed with the lead." According to the same writer, there are rich mines of iron in San Salvador, producing a purer and more malleable metal than any imported from Europe, the ore, too, being close to the surface, and very abundant. The silver mines, he says, are now only abandoned for the want of capital to carry them on.

About five leagues north of San Miguel there is a number of silver mines. One of them was worked by a Spaniard, some thirty years ago. He invested his own property, and $100,000 of borrowed money. In less than six months he was enabled to pay his obligations; and although he died before the end of the year, he left $70,000 in gold and silver, the produce of the mine. Some dispute arose about the ownership of the mine after his death, and, it ceasing to be worked, the mine became filled with water, and still remains in that condition. There can be no doubt, that if a company would take hold of the mine, and pump out the water, immense fortunes would speedily be realized.

The mines of Tabanco were still more celebrated. They yielded, when worked, $1,000,000 annually, though worked in a rude manner without machinery. The annual profits to the proprietors were $200,000. All the hills, near Tegucigalpa, the capital of Honduras, abound in gold and silver intermixed; and although none of them have been excavated to any depth, or worked with proper machinery, they formerly yielded more than $2,000,000 per annum. "From all I have been able to collect," says Mr. Dunlap, "this neighborhood appears to possess natural stores of the precious metals even exceeding those of the celebrated mines of Potosi, in Bolivia. * * * The ores generally contain from 12 to 15 per cent. of silver, and from 1 to 1½ of gold; but the latter metal is often found pure in many places, and thousands of dollars' worth of it are annually collected by the Indians in the sands of the rivers, sometimes in pieces weighing 5 or 6 pounds."

In almost every section of the country that has been explored, the precious metals have been found; but as a thorough exploration of the country has never been made, its real mineral resources are unknown. It is not improbable, from such accounts as have been received, that another California lies in Central America. Byam, an English traveler, states that the auriferous streams of Segovia are constantly visited by the natives, who, in a few weeks, never fail to wash out and pick up enough gold to last them the whole year.

Besides the metals above mentioned, Nicaragua yields sulphur in large quantities, nearly pure, from the volcanoes; also nitre, and sulphate of iron.

The most important silver mines in Nicaragua, at present, are those of Dissilta. They have been worked only for a short time, under every disadvantage, but have, nevertheless, during the last three years, produced upwards of 17,300 pounds of silver.

Such is a brief sketch of the agricultural and mineral resources of Nicaragua, derived chiefly from Mr. Squier's late work. We consider the work of Mr. Squier as entirely reliable. There is no doubt that the half has not yet been told as regards the actual natural wealth and advantages of Nicaragua.

The shameful usurpation of the British government in that quarter of the world has been a great drawback to Nicaragua, and still continues to be. It cannot be denounced in terms too strong. Since the English usurpation the trade of the country has seriously diminished, in consequence of the depression and uncertainty which it has created in the interior, and which has induced many of the native merchants to contract their business. The additional duties levied by the British have also contributed to the same result. They have imposed an import and export duty of 2½ per cent. ad valorem, and made other onerous restrictions on commerce. Very recently the British government, from motives of policy, suspended the collection of duties in San Juan, but it has not permanently abandoned the system. The seizure of the port of San Juan, by England, was made in consequence of the discovery that it was likely to become the only Atlantic terminus of an interoceanic canal. They set up the shallow pretext of supporting the territorial pretensions of a tribe of savages, or mixed negroes and Indians, called Moscos, or Mosquitos, and in virtue of some equivocal relations which the pirates of Jamaica anciently maintained with them. The seizure was purely piratical, and would have called down the bellowing indignation of England had any other nation made the seizure. "When it is known," says Mr. Squier, "that San Juan was the principal port of entry of Nicaragua under the Spanish dominion; that for more than 300 years it was the avenue through which its trade was conducted; that the river flowing past it was defended by massive and costly works, which, although in ruins, are yet imposing; that no Mosquito Indians ever resided there; that all its inhabitants were Nicaraguans, and that England herself recognized it, as pertaining to Nicaragua, by blockading it as a part of her territories; and when to all this is added the fact, that the Mosquito Indians never themselves pretended to any territorial rights, *there or elsewhere*, until induced to do so by British agents, the enormity of the seizure is rendered apparent."*

Since the seizure of the port, under the pretext of effecting the "*re-establishment* of Mosquito rights and authority," the municipal and other regulations, not excepting the port charges and customs' rates, have been promulgated and fixed by an officer styling himself "Her Britannic Majesty's Consul," or "Vice-Consul," who has for his executive force a few Jamaica negroes, called "police."† "He is, in fact," says Mr. Squier, "dictator of the place, and the inhabitants are subject, without appeal, to his will, for there are no written laws or fixed regulations of any kind. He assumes to dispose of lands, and gives titles under his consular seal; nor does he, ever so remotely, appear to recognize the so called Mosquito king. Indeed, the only evidence that this farcical character is held in remembrance at all, is, that a flag, said to be his, is occasionally hoisted in an open space in the centre of the town. The English flag, however, floats over what is called the custom-house, and is the only one for which any degree of respect is exacted. The new tariff promulgated at San Juan, in April, 1850, was signed 'J. M. Daly, Collector,' and did not purport to have been enacted by any superior authority. Indeed, the present situation of the town, overawed, as it constantly is, by one or two British vessels, is anomalous in the extreme. If, as it is pretended, this port belongs to the supposititious Mosquito king, it is difficult to understand how a second party can exercise sovereignty over it, or upon what principles of international law the consuls of one nation can assume municipal and general administrative authority in the ports of another. The simple fact is, that Great Britain having secured possession of this important port, under a pretext which deceives nobody, no longer cares to stultify herself by affecting to conform to that pretext. The thing is too absurd to be continued."

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* Squier's Nicaragua, vol. i, p. 78. † Idem, p. 79.

Our limits forbid us dilating further on this subject, but it is one which ought to arouse the indignation of the American people.

ART. IV.—SOUTHERN SCHOOL-BOOKS.

"Science at best is at a discount here, and those who would promote it must not expect the same success as tailors, blacksmiths, &c."—*De Bow's Magazine, March*, 1852, *page* 336.

THIS pithy opinion may be applied to other sections of the South besides New-Orleans. Writers and speakers are prone to dilate on the theme "that knowledge is power;" but the practical man and close observer soon becomes satisfied that in the South, very generally, cotton, sugar-cane, and negroes, are *power;* and that intellectual and scientific attainments, unless they are rapidly creating wealth for their possessor, are not regarded as of much value in themselves. This is very well shown by the facts stated in the short notice of the labors of Professors Smith and Chilton, whence we have taken our motto, and is yet more strongly displayed in the disposition to place instructors of youth, and purely scientific men, much lower in the social scale than they rank in Europe, and in some other parts of the Union than this. Learning and science are regarded as tools, by which to operate upon the pockets; and not as involving principles, truths, and methods, by which one can act upon the world as well as with it. Instructors, therefore, rank, in the estimation of many, as first class *overseers!* One improves his pupils' intellects so as to be worth so much per head in the professional and practical market; the other raises so many bales per hand, or to the acre: *both* keep their "gangs" or "force" in good or bad order, as the case may be; and both are paid in like proportion—the immortal soul in one scale, balanced by cotton and sugar in the other! "The dignity of intellect, as displayed in the teacher's mission," is a "sham," unless it be, where the clergyman and instructor are combined in one; and thus it comes to pass, that the South and Southwest are dotted over with sectarian establishments, and wrangling divinity schools—the control of education having in a great measure passed into the hands of the clergy, simply because it requires the self-denial of a preacher to meet the annoyances of a teacher, and his pulpit influence to keep up his standing.

It is not however the object of this article to discuss the value of knowledge, or the proper grade of its votaries, and we therefore pass to the consideration of the school-books of the South—their origin, their character and influences, their defects and the remedy.

The publication of school-books is the most profitable branch of a bookseller's business. Irving and Prescott, Bryant and Willis, Bancroft and Hilliard,—the seductions of poetry, the inventions of fiction, the delvings and analyzings of science, even Typee Melville, and Bachelor "Ike Marvel," "pale their ineffectual fires" before Webster's and Comly's Spelling-book, First Readers, "Productive Grammars" and School Geographies. The supply of the innumerable hordes of little tow-headed urchins, whence are to come the great men of the future, is the one thing wished for by the men "of the trade." Looking to the practical, there is scarce a firm in business that would not prefer the copyright of Noah Webster's Spelling-book to Daniel Webster's Speeches.

The first thought that enters the mind of the inquirer is, that the school-books of the South *originate* in the North; and until recently, when Cincinnati and Louisville entered the market, exclusively in the North, and *far* North. We do not remember a single text-book of the schools printed or published south of Mason and Dixon's line, unless it be Peter Parley's at Louisville. If there are such, they have but slight circulation. The southern booksellers are literally in a state of "peonage" to the "barons of Cliff-street" and others of that ilk. The books are prepared by northern men, often without practical knowledge of teaching, untraveled in the United States; and they are prepared, too, in "series" or "sets," with references so made, from one to the other, that any one volume of the "set" finding its way into a school-room, or college, and obtaining some approval and use, may act as a wedge to let in the balance, and shove out antagonist editions. Each large northern city has its peculiar style of books; and the very first thing a bookseller or publisher beginning business in such city desires and aims at is, to obtain a name of some literary celebrity with which to christen a series of copyrighted, stereotyped school-books; if the classics, too often filched bodily from the Germans or the Prussians, overlaid with notes in English; if in English, often paste and scissor concoctions of old grammars and geographies; if in French, often unblushing plagiarisms from old Parisian school-books or lectures. Any one who can see the trade-lists, or will compare the circulars of the northern houses, will confess we are right. The competition among all these rival houses for a market is constant and incessant. Agents, colporteurs and pedlars are brought into requisition, and so gainful is a successful school-book, that it is a *fact*, that agents anxious to introduce a *new* work, and root out an established one, have offered to take all of the old books from teachers, and replace them with the new publications without charge! This being done as one mode of bringing them into use.

The origin, the authorship, the publication, and the control of the quantity sold, and the price, are all of them, then, far distant from the South.

We pass next to the character and influences of these books; and here we desire to assert a principle that may cause some doubt in the reader's mind, and of which we regret our present limits prevent a full discussion. We believe that southern life, habits, thoughts and aims, are so essentially different from those of the North, that here a different character of books, tuition and training is absolutely required, to bring up the boy to manhood with his faculties fully developed. If the mythology of the ancients was controlled by climate; if at one point winter and bad weather shut the boy up by the fireside five months in a year, and at another not five weeks; if at one the body ripens at least three years later than at the other, and if the aims of the after-life are as distinct as the degrees of latitude that cover the Union,—why then should there not be such dissimilarities as to prevent elementary works of reasonable size and price for schools from being adapted to all? The classics may be excepted, and even there, some regard should be had in the notes to early training and mental aptitudes. Those who have taught, or seen teaching in New-York or Philadelphia, and then at New-Orleans, or inland points south, will readily understand this view. There are distinct idiosyncracies, if they may be so called, peculiar to each great section of the United States, and these cannot be disregarded by a teacher. Without delaying then to argue this point, which might lead us too far astray from our present subject, we venture the foregoing assertion, and appeal to observation to sustain us.

We believe, then, that the character of the common school-books used in the southern institutions of learning, has the ear-mark of the section and writers who compile and originate them, and that the inducement to these works is not love of learning, and anxiety to improve methods of teaching and developing the mind, but a mere love of gain on the part of the publishers with capital enough to invest in the business; regarding the young intellect of the country as a paying crop, worth so much, and making their calculations on these principles.

We are conscious this is an ignoble and selfish view of the matter, but we think that it would be difficult for a candid examiner to come to any other conclusion. We admit that a desire of supplanting a rival house will induce improvement in the mode of getting up and preparing a text-book, and that teachers, anxious for the eclat, and if successful, the gain of authorship, are perpetually supplying the market with so called new works; but the principle remains untouched: the brains of boys and girls are regarded as a California placer, to be dug, washed out, and sifted, for the benefit of *private* interest, and no more labor is given to the book than will carry it out into common use, by means of the usages of trade.

An instance will perhaps illustrate our view: A teacher, or "savant," has devoted much labor to some peculiar branch of education; he has laid out all his strength, experience, and knowledge, in a school-book, which really developes new views, and suggests educational improvements. His manuscript is complete, and the author, having submitted it to competent judges, is cheered by their approval, and feels as if he had rendered some benefit to his profession, and gained some honor for himself. But now comes the pinch. The publication of school-books is a monopoly in the hands of certain great publishing houses in the large cities of the North. They each have made large investments in stereotype plates, copyrights, maps, and printed "stock;" nay more, on the very topic on which our teacher or "savant" has written, these publishers have a book, or a series of books in use. If the teacher publishes on his own score, or outside of these houses, judicious friends tell him, or his own observation teaches him, that he runs a great risk of pecuniary loss, and he therefore proceeds to the "right publisher." What does he do? Why, as self-interest usually induces any man to act: he either dissuades or refuses; or, if his "reader" advises him that "it will do," the publisher sits down to a calculation of expediency, profit and loss. Can I give this new book such a circulation as to kill off Harper, Appleton, and others, from the market, and save myself from loss on my own copyrights that become comparatively worthless if this new work comes out? If I can, I will take it. The chances are, however, that the author is rebuffed; for presentation copies to editors, teachers, and literati, from whom are to flow the *puffs* that shall waft the work on a prosperous voyage, will alone consume a small edition, to say nothing of advertising, and investment of capital in "stock." If the author does make a contract, he probably sells his copyright for a per cent. on sales of his book; and from that time out, the bantling of his brain goes on the trade-lists, and adds one more name to the "valuable school-books published (by Gammon and Co.) and for sale by booksellers generally." This is not, we assure the reader, "fancy's sketch;" we have the case, and use it to show that the *character* of school-books in this country is rapidly becoming subsidiary to mere motives of gain. Now, in all this, we see no special cause of complaint for publishers alone; the laws of trade, competition, and interest, produce such a state; and booksellers, taking the country as they find it, have a clear right to occupy the market. The author and publisher are interested in praising the book, and nobody has any special interest in decrying it; but we do think it is high time that southern reading men, educated men, and those concerned in and about schools and colleges, should create a public opinion that will check the evil, and compel more regard to the wants of the rising generation, and this, especially, when the *influence* of such school-books, so prepared, and emanating whence they do, is considered.

As far back as 1779, Mr. Jefferson, in Virginia, proposed a systematical plan of southern education: 1st, Elementary schools, comprising all classes, rich and poor; 2d, A class of colleges, calculated for all the wants of American life; 3d, A finishing university, for teaching the highest branches in the most perfect manner. He also remarks, touching the university of Virginia, that "he hoped it would save them from becoming the Barbary of the Union, and falling into the ranks of their own negroes;" and insisted that the education of "southern youth, in the southern states, is necessary, if the states are to remain sovereign and independent;" stating with alarm the fact, that five hundred of their sons were educating in northern seminaries, "as a canker eating on the vitals of their (southern) existence." Of the same spirit was General Washington, when in his will he recommends a Virginia university, as a protection against passing so important a period of life in Europe. Both of these great men are usually regarded as good *Unionists;* and if they saw danger then from northern institutions, when the South was Georgia, we may safely venture to deprecate not only instruction, but the elementary books of instruction from the same quarter, when the South is the Rio Grande and the Pacific.

In this article we wish chiefly to deal with the lower class of school-books in use at the South, such as spelling-books, geographies, histories, readers, speech-books, and similar elementary works; because they reach the first class of Mr. Jefferson's plan, and are in the vernacular. Classical, scientific, and metaphysical works are open to the same charge of serious defects for southern use; but we have no space for that class at present. We aver, then, that these northern school-books are injurious: First, because they are published as a mere matter of gain, without reference to the wants of the pupils using them. What is to be thought of the value of a Grammatic Reader, Nos. 1 and 2, actually used in a southern public school, by children from seven to ten years old, which at page 24 runs thus: "This youth was delighted with the prospect of becoming a farmer." "This is *an intransitive, post-substantive, prepositional, gerundive phrase!*" If any one thing could delight a youth compelled to endure such trash, it would be, we should think, the prospect of becoming rid of it as soon as possible.

What is to be done with geographies that tell pupils "States are divided into *towns* and counties?" as if, out of New England, the use of town, as synonymous with parish, district, or township, was usual; that devote *two* pages to Connecticut onions and broom-corn, and ten lines to Louisiana and sugar? of histories that are silent about Texas? of first readers, that declare all spelling but Noah Webster's "vulgar," and "not used in good society?" and of "speakers" that abound in selections for southern declamation, made almost exclusively from northern debates in Congress, and from abolition poets?

We think, secondly, these school-books injurious, because there is no permanency about them. When the market is supplied, or, rather, the public saturated, with a particular work, it gradually disappears from the stores, and some other, not a whit better, but newer, takes the place. This is especially annoying to teachers and pupils who, having become used to a certain set of books, find themselves, they scarce know how, deprived of their chosen works, and are told they are out of print. There was some philosophy in the boy's excuse, "that he could not spell, because he hadn't got the hang of the new school-house."

This system, too, not only by the variety and change of supply, which depends purely on *trade* reasons, causes mischief, but it also carries out of the South a very large amount of money, far larger than those who have not examined the subject would suppose. Let any one of our readers, who educates a family, calculate what he pays out yearly for school-books, and then reflect that all around him are paying a similar tax. Were it not that this outlay, above all others, is most cheerfully paid by parents, and goes out gradually, there would have been an outcry before this, especially when about thirty per cent. is added on to the northern cost for the southern market. Our complaint is, not that the money is spent, but that, like in almost everything else we want, we spend our means abroad, and not at home. There are other reasons that will present themselves to those who will reflect on this topic, and which we would express, did we not desire to devote the rest of our space to the most important and concluding division of our subject. We mean, the remedy.

In choosing a remedy, it is requisite to have clear perceptions of the ailment, and we therefore have tried to show, in the previous part of this article, that general education being the basis of all our social and political institutions, most of the present school-books, by which the elements of an education are passed into the minds of the young pupils, are a mere matter of trade, produced for money-making purposes, and improved only so far as competition in trade, or public opinion, *compels* improvement. We have also contended that the wants of the South are not met by the present school-books in use among us, produced at the North; and that the extent of territory embraced in the Union forbids any one set of works, unless classical, from being adapted for universal use, and that there are reasons, from climate, productions, politics, society and geographical position, why this should be so.

We consider this state of affairs caused by a bad *system*, and not by bad *men*, and the remedy must, therefore, go to a change of system. Now, the business of popular education is, in a great degree, a national business. The federal government has recognized the principle in the public land system; but each state must, and constitutionally ought, to afford a good common school education to every child born on its soil. This principle has been generally acted on by almost every state in the Union; and if demagogues and politicians can be prevented from gambling for place and power with the school funds, there is no danger that our posterity will lack the ability of knowing right from wrong. Each state, then, should control its own school-books. The state superintendent of public schools should have suitable manuals prepared, developing the early history of the state, its productions, its constitution, and mode of government, and should also select uniform text-books, from the spelling-book upwards, for the whole state. If this were done judiciously, the printing by contract, and pains taken to have the *best* of the kind, private schools would follow this lead, and public opinion would shut out bookselling speculations. This, to a certain extent, *is* done at the North. New-York will not use Massachusetts text-books, and Pennsylvania is taking the same plan. There is no reason why a child should not begin his first knowledge of things at *home*, and be made to identify himself in thought with his native state, its productions, history, biography and interests. A generous competition, too, would spring up between states, as to who should prepare and develop the best text-books and system, and from this competition an experience would grow of great value to our future interests. This project involves no heavier outlay than the present plan, and leaves open to private competition the higher range of text-books; for we very much doubt if a sound, honest, common school education is not quite as much as any state ought at present to attempt, with the single exception of NORMAL SCHOOLS.

By this term we mean schools where the profession of teaching is well taught, for a want of competent teachers is the *one* great cause of deficient southern education; and we shall have few suitable school-books until writers, taught by experience, rise up among us to prepare them.

Of this section of the Union, more than of any other, is it true, that teaching is in general taken up without training, and as a temporary resource, and to it flock too many of whom, with truth it may be said,

> "A third-rate college licked them to the shape,
> Not of the scholar, but the scholar's ape."

Perhaps to this circumstance, more than to any other, may be traced the propensity to educate our youth at the North, instead of at home, as if there were disgrace in a southern diploma. So long as this principle operates, there can be but little permanent improvement. The southern planter must resolve to do with his children, as he is striving by factories to do with his cotton, manufacture the material when it grows. To effect so desirable a result, there is nothing equal to the Normal School, devoted to preparing young men for the profession of teaching in all its branches, and calculated to relieve the professions of law and medicine, already stuffed to repletion. The internal improvements in progress, and in contemplation, will require a large number of engineers and scientific mechanics. The foolish and anti-American notion about "vulgar mechanics" is passing away. People, with that eye to the practical and the dollar which marks our nation, begin to discover that bridge-building, locomotive engines, the superintendence of factories, the chemistry of dyeing cottons, and of agriculture, the construction of sugar-works, and, in fact, nearly all the practical applications of the arts, are quite as honorable employments, and often more remunerative, than the pursuit of the three professions; that the young doctor and lawyer, having hung out on a shutter a bit of gilded tin, are often driven to low expedients by "the force of circumstance"—a force quite as powerful as steam or water; and that the preacher too often finds his reward laid up in heaven, for he rarely obtains it on earth. In truth, we are a drugged and law-ridden community, too much beset with pills and bills of costs; and what a blessing it would be, if our cotton and sugar-planters, who are so rich, could only believe that their children ought to be something else than rich men's sons, and that

> "No fables tell us of Minervas born
> From bales of cotton, or from sacks of corn;"

that it is a vain and pitiful ambition to visit the North for a tinsel education, that ruins the mind for agricultural life, begets contempt of home usages, and returns to the roof-tree an expensively-dressed "dandified" boy-man, without any of that "masculine development making the will earnest, the soul full of manly intent, and with purpose to make itself felt on mind, and not on tailors, dancers, singers, wine and horses." Is it, among these small midges, who regard their wealth a license or excuse for all else deficient, that in times to come the South is to find its pilots when the ship of state is adrift, the rigging sprung, sails rent, breakers a-head, crew mutinous, and party-spirit raging? Are these they, who, hereafter, can be looked to as men fit to go forth into public life, having learned what the constitution of the country really *is*, how it became so, the perils that have threatened and do threaten it, the fanaticism that has attacked it, the courage that has fought for it, and the wisdom that has made it great? Verily, we think not.

There would be little cause for the quotation that heads this article, if more pains were taken to guide those aright, who, by position or wealth, measurably control public amusements and tastes; and there will be no change for the better in southern cities, until a class of healthy minds, earnest in the affairs of life, and awake to the proper duties of young Americans, have been by common and normal schools, developed from the so-called lower and middle orders. Should that unhappy time ever arrive, when the whole South must rally as one man, and resist or perish, we may rely upon it, that the "man of the hour" will not be found among the "curled darlings," who imbibed their education at the feet of some abolition Gamaliel of the North; but the "true man" will arise from the working classes of brains and hands; he will be some one who sat on the bench of the free school, and obtained his first ideas of the world, and of the rights of man in the world, from noting and mingling with representatives of all classes that make up such schools, and from books and from teachers that taught him the history of the South and the destiny of the South.

We have purposely avoided any exhibition of the details of the state and normal schools. But as illustrating the value of normal schools for producing school-books and instructors, we indicate West Point Academy and the Naval School at Annapolis. What are these but national normal schools, educating their pupils for certain pursuits, and to fill certain posts in the army and navy? Look at the *school-books* that have emanated, especially from West

Point graduates—are they not confessedly the best of their class, and have they not a larger circulation than any others? and are not these graduates "of the Point," when they leave the army, always in demand for engineers, teachers and officers? Why is this? The answer is well known; their instruction has been complete, there is no sham about it, and whatever they have been taught has been thoroughly taught. So convinced has public opinion become upon this point, that military schools, avowedly adopting West Point as their model, are rapidly growing up in several of the states; and wherever they are honestly managed, they invariably break up the old four years' course of some *twenty* sciences and branches, that adorn the list of studies in many of the colleges and universities.

There are now in these United States some one hundred and twenty colleges, trudging along in the four years' track. They teach Greek and Latin; where is the body of accurate classical scholars to be found? They teach, too, mathematics; and yet, with all the outcry for engineers, caused by our internal improvements, how many ever come from a college? The Academy at West Point, graduating yearly far less than many of our colleges, has furnished more engineers than the whole one hundred and twenty colleges combined. We could show the same thing as to many other branches of learning, did space permit. But one question we must ask—what are the school-books these colleges use? The answer is, that hardly any three of them adopt the same text-books throughout; scarce one of them at the North but has some professor, who, according to the measure of his abilities, has not, in conjunction with some publisher, vexed the pockets of the South with a book or books expounding or confounding some branch of elementary knowledge; and "the end is not yet," and never will be, until the whole system is broken up, root and branch.

It is time, however, to close our article. The subject is one of great interest, and needs discussion. Whether the proper mode of curing the evils complained of has been indicated, it is not for us to say; but that the evil exists is undeniable. Let public opinion wake up, and, if in no other way, possibly self-interest may induce some lord of paper and print to speculate in a series of southern school-books, prepared, if it must be so, by some alien to our soil, but with reference to our wants; and even in this way a beginning of reform may come. But so long as parents, teachers, school directors, trustees and superintendents submit in silence and endure, that long will the northern publisher "pour on."

"Who would be free,
Themselves must strike the blow."

ART. V.—WOMAN AND HER NEEDS.*

MYRIADS on myriads of men, before the time of Isaac Newton, must have sat under apple-trees; and vast numbers of them too, undoubtedly, had apples to drop upon their heads; while not a few, it is likely, puzzled themselves to know why the apple should fall plumb down, (thereby entailing upon them the evils of a headache,) instead of flying off at a tangent, a right angle, or a curve. Many a one of these myriads might, perchance, just as well as the great philosopher, have guessed out the wonderful law of gravitation; only—not one of them did it. Why was this? Not want of intellect, surely. No doubt there were many men before, as well as since Sir Isaac Newton, quite his equals in mental power. But *they* did not solve the riddle, and *he* did. The time for the solving of it being come, even then came the man to solve it. Perhaps the day may yet arrive, when all puzzling questions in physics and metaphysics, in morals and in ethics, may be as clearly disposed of; but in the meantime, we must be content, like the non-Newtons of the past world, when the apples came tumbling about their ears, to scratch our heads and bear the penalty of our ignorance. To be sure, we will still, in the midst of this head-thumping process, look up inquiringly and ask, "Why?" Why are some things hard and other things soft? some things square and other things round? Man has a great propensity for asking "Why?" and, upon the whole, it is a fortunate tendency. By perpetual knocking at a closed door, sometimes a hand comes to open it.

Why, then, among the darkest of life's problems, constantly recurs to us the question:—Why is there evil in this world? and how is it to be remedied? "Why?" "why?" "why?"—has the weary thought of man, constantly interrogated of Nature, appealed to Reason, and searched Revelation to discover? But ever there has come back to him only the dull echo of his own inquirings—"Why?" What is Evil? Can any man put his hand upon it? Can any man explain it in its nature, its birth, or its causes? Is it truly a Lucifer breath, a blast from hell, sent to poison our world, that God's mercy may find scope to redeem us from it? Is it the inspiration of some great Satanic creation, which strides our earth in mystic significancy of unimagined mysteries? Is it an active power, or a passive one? an existence, or only a deficiency? a something that is? or rather, a something that is not? a virtue left imperfect? a good not filled up? even as darkness, ignorance, and error, are in themselves nothing—only deficiencies, *minus* quantities of light, knowledge and truth? These are the questions—and such as these—over which, age after age, the wise and the good have thought themselves weary; while the imaginative and the weak have sought among the stars, and thought to read their destinies from leaves and flowers; and listened to their dreams, and believed that it was God who called them. But all have passed away, and, one after another, they have resigned their gray hairs and wearied hearts to the dust, while still upon their expiring lips quivered the great, unanswered—"Why?"

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* Woman and her Needs. By Mrs. E. Oakes Smith. New-York: Fowler & Wells.

To-day, in this great age of "new lights," we have solutions numberless offered to this our world-wide problem. Every "*ism*" upon earth has got its explanation of, and its remedy for, this monster Evil, which the poor, ignorant world has so long imagined inexplicable and incurable. What is this bugbear of the world? this sin—this pain—this suffering? Nothing, forsooth, it would now appear—nothing but a nightmare dream; a kind of world dyspepsia; at worst, a species of toothache, which, by some socialistic, communistic, feministic, Mormonistic, or any other such application of chloroform to the suffering patient, may be made to pass away in a sweet dream of perfection. If we will only believe our doctors and open our mouths wide, we are cured at once. Down goes their nostrum, as glibly as the new-fashioned *capsule*, by help of which, the lucky individual to whom a nauseous dose of castor-oil is prescribed, may (so declareth to us the immaculate truth of advertisements) luxuriate in a dainty something, resembling a luscious piece of turtle-fat; one luxurious gulp, and, lo! the deed is done.

Startled by the loud-mouthed Eurekas of each new sect as it starts into being, we turn to investigate their discoveries—but alas! like the fabled fruit of the Dead Sea, these are but dust and ashes to the taste. Their great discoveries, forsooth, end in the tautologous declaration that the world is evil, simply because it is not perfect. They write books, and they make speeches; they plan and they counterplan; they fancy they have found a perfect mine of thought, and they dig away at it valorously. But, behold! the fancied jewels which they dive at prove to be but cast-off glass—the refuse offal of those great laborers who have preceded them; while still, in its fullest development, the same great mystery of evil, for which neither man nor woman has yet found a cause or a cure, looms out, not only in spite of, but even in bolder prominence from their ignorant meddling. Quacks they are, whose salve fires the wound, whose potion poisons the blood, and the sick world writhes under their ill-judged medicaments. Back, fools! to what ye were made for!—your plow and your loom, your spindle and your shears; these, and these only, are the tools Heaven destined for you. *Ne sutor ultra crepidam.* Wo to the world which seeks its rulers where it should but find its drudges! Wo to the drudge who would exalt himself into the ruler! Nature is vigilant of her laws, and has no pardon for the breakers of them. The sentenced wretch appeals in vain; and the hair-brained Phæton, who would guide the chariot of the sun, must perish amidst the suffering he has caused.

The world has supped full of horrors under such false guides. Blind leaders of the blind, they have led us through dirty slough and miry way, until filth and corruption seem almost our natural element. But we are about to touch upon womanhood, and must, in courtesy, somewhat soften our language, though we are by no means sure that the feminine reform corps may not take our deference, thus offered, as an invidious distinction, maliciously bestowed upon their sex. Strong, however, in the purity of our intentions, the defender, not the libeler of the sex, we must, while we will do our "spiriting" as gently as the circumstances of the case allow, endeavor to show the false position in which the innovators have placed themselves, as well as the slanderous assertions which their course is calculated to throw over the true cause of womanhood.

The reforming ladies have not yet got an "*ism*" for their move; but have nevertheless come forward scarcely less boldly than their masculine coadjutors, or, perhaps, we should rather say competitors, in the world-doctoring system. We have had some curiosity to see their arguments; and being, we confess, both unable and unwilling to plow through the mass of declamation with which they favor the world, have endeavored to limit our studies, in this line, to selections. Following this course, our attention has happened to fall upon Mrs. E. O. Smith, who is, we are informed, among the most moderate of the feminist reformers! Tolerably fair specimens of the other extreme have been made public in the sundry women-convention reports which have appeared, and also in a very remarkable article which graced, or rather disgraced, the pages of the last July number of the Westminster Quarterly. We have not, with a superficial view of criticism, limited ourselves to a glance over title-page and final flourish, with a hurried glimpse or two at the intervening pages of the little work we have undertaken to review, but, with a sober spirit of inquiry, have set about finding whatever we could find in it of true or of false, marking and remarking everything noteworthy in our progress, and are, we think, ready to give the authoress credit for any merit of thought or style which she may have exhibited. We will say little of the last—simply remarking, that if the lady is not a very careless writer, she has to complain of a very careless printer. Her thoughts (or vacancies of thought, we cannot quite determine which) being not unfrequently given in a form which fairly puzzles our grammar as well as our logic. How many of these discrepancies belong to the printer, we will not undertake to say, having ourselves suffered enough from the impish fraternity of the printing-office, to learn a most sympathizing fellow-feeling towards our co-sufferers in that line. We take it, moreover, for granted, that many worse literary delinquencies must be frequent among the reformist sisterhood, (the lady in question ranking, we are informed, among their literati,) and we have cause to thank our stars that we have not, in the boldness of our exploring expedition through these unknown regions, fallen into worse hands. If we are, as we frankly confess ourselves, somewhat mystified even now, by the irregular currents and the confusion of words and ideas around us, what might have been our fate had we become entangled midst the overwhelming icebergs of female-convention polemics? Would the world have immortalized in us a second Sir John Franklin? Upon the whole, we have laid down our little volume with a most sympathizing consciousness of the truth of a remark we encountered in a recent number of Blackwood. The reviewer there observes, that the fashion of the day, among a certain class of writers, is to dwell with great emphasis and a kind of inspired frenzy upon the word "infinite," which they have appropriated to their use in a peculiar, mystified, indefinite, indefinable signification. "They have made the discovery that this poet or that painter talks or paints the 'infinite.' They find in every obscurity of thought—in every violence of passion, the 'infinite.' There is no such thing as 'sound and fury signifying nothing;' they always signify the 'infinite.'" Very decidedly Mrs. Smith deals largely in the "infinite;" and we confess ourselves matter of fact enough to wish that she had, instead, confined herself to the much more distinct, as well as more succinct explanation of a certain Mrs. Mehitable Haskell, who, rising to make a speech at the first Worcester Convention, frankly acknowledges that "she does not know what are woman's rights, but for forty, nay, fifty years, she has known what woman's wrongs are, for she has felt them." Now there is something right hearty—something earnest and downright in the declaration of this good lady. We feel that *she, at least*, did not frequent the conventions for the purpose of displaying her graces, whether of person or rhetoric. We fancy we can see the good Mrs. Mehitable before us: Broad, square-shouldered; somewhat raw-boned; sharp gray eyes; teeth deficient (she would disdain to mend her oratory or her looks by false ones); a bony hand which hath shown service over the washtub, and well calculated, in its mere appearance, to excite admonitory twinges in the flagellatable parts of luckless youth; said hand being used with some vehemence of gesticulation. All her motions angular; all her forms angular. Worthy Mrs. Mehitable, vastly rather would we shake hands with thee in all amicable companionship, than stand a few of those angular motions, energetically applied about our ears. In very truth, too, we confess to something of sympathy with thee. Evidently, thou art an earnest soul. Earnest, doubtless, in thy washtub, as in thy flagellatory duties; and earnestly, too, frequentest thou these conventions, hoping that some good may be hatched out of them. Alas! good Mrs. Mehitable, take home that earnest soul of thine. There is work for it elsewhere, but none here. Here is Babel-confusion, brawling presumption, restless vanity; no room for truth. Thy woman's wrongs, borne for fifty long years, canst thou not bear yet a little longer? Let suffering teach thee patience. Let patience teach thee love. Let love teach thee gentleness, charity, forbearance; and although we will not warrant thee a disfranchisement from woman's wrongs—for our world is far from perfect, and ever the strong hand must abuse its power—credit us, worthy Mrs. Mehitable, thus thou hast done more to put down the abuse of that strong hand—more in the true cause of woman, than scores of conventionists can accomplish. Thus all that one woman can do, thou hast done. For hast thou not shown that gentleness can master passion? Bowing before the strong hand, hast thou not shamed it? And doth not thus thine earnest soul teach to all within the circle of its influence, the true lesson of Christian charity and philosophical forbearance?

But let us return to Mrs. Smith, who, being a literary lady, a "woman of genius," as we understand her occasionally to intimate, would in all probability spurn the idea of comparison with so humble a sister reformer as this most excellent Mrs. Mehitable, the charm of whose name and eloquence has drawn us off from our more immediate subject of discussion. We have confessed that Mrs. S. is too high in "the infinite" for our clouded intellects to penetrate her dream-land. We have done our best, but cannot exactly find out what she would be after. We even doubt whether, in the full flow of inspiration, her genius could condescend to settle so trifling a point in her own mind. When folks are in "the infinite," they are of course, and ought to be, incomprehensible to other people; very likely, also, to themselves. She, too, preaches love and gentleness; but it is with a reservation: a resistance reservation, a conventionist reservation, a right-of-voting reservation, a spontaneity reservation, an intuition reservation. In short, her argument rushing to and fro on every varying gale, from communism to socialism, from Christianity to free-thinking, from real woman-thought to conventionist woman-thought, is as impossible to follow as an ignis-fatuus. We can only say that it has, in all its veerings, a most distressing tendency to the "higher law" fallacies, and our authoress has, much more than she is herself probably aware of, exhibited to us the undeveloped Louis Blanc in petticoats. We must however here do the ladies the justice to remark, that the feminine move has at least this advantage over the various masculine ones, that, more than any theory yet advanced, it logically carries principles to their climax. Granted that A is B, and B is C, inevitably then A must be C. The ladies jump to their conclusion boldly, while men stand higgling with the relics of old prejudice. Given the premises that "all men* are born free and equal;" that "intuition is God's law," and that "aptitude is no argument of use," they are right, and have the merit of bringing out their principles in unadulterated perfection. A strange *pot pouri* of a world must indeed result from such premises!

Our authoress complains of the degradation of woman in society: that she is out of her place, unappreciated, having her talents and powers not only hidden under a bushel, but absolutely thrown away, while she becomes either the slave or the toy of man. Now this is all true of some women—many women—perhaps we must even confess, of a majority of women. (We are not quite ready to concede this position in its full force, but for the sake of argument will give our antagonists the furthest point to which they can possibly lay claim.) Yet we will not allow the universality nor the necessity of such an effect, from the operation of the actual laws of existing society. It is not woman, as a class, who is thus degraded, but only so many individual women, each one of whom is separately, and from causes quite extraneous from her position as woman, so degraded. Many, noble (and we believe increasing in proportionate numbers with the advance of civilization) are the examples of high, self-relying, heaven-depending, duty-fulfilling women in every position of life, who, by a noble self-abnegation, and a faithful adherence to the laws of God and nature, are daily showing that woman is not inherently, either in her nature or her position, what our authoress would wish to prove her. Many women (we have already said we will even grant an unfortunately large proportion of women) are degraded, not because they have submitted themselves to the position which nature assigns them, but because, like Mrs.Smith, they cannot be content with the exercise of the duties and virtues called forth by that, and in that position. They forget the woman's duty-fulfilling ambition, to covet man's fame-grasping ambition. Woman was made for *duty*, not for *fame;* and so soon as she forgets this great law of her being, which consigns her to a life of heroism if she will—but quiet, unobtrusive heroism—she throws herself from her position, and thus, of necessity, degrades herself. This mistaken hungering for the forbidden fruit; this grasping at the notoriety belonging (if indeed it properly belongs to any) by nature to man, is at the root of all her debasement. Look at the ball-room belle for instance. Why is she a flirt, a coquette, a heartless trifler with hearts? Not because there is harm in the ball-room enjoyment of youth; in the joy-waking music, or the spirit-rousing dance; but because she would be *talked* of, and forgets duty, conscience, and heart, in the love of notoriety. Why does the young mother forget the sick baby in its cradle, to listen to the whispered inanities of those bewhiskered fops who surround her? Why, but because she cannot resign to duty that petty fame to which she degrades herself. Why does the gray and wrinkled matron, whom nature and duty would keep at her fireside corner to wake the young hearts round her to the love of God, nature, and virtue, rush out with her be-rouged cheek and stained locks, to try and play the belle a little longer? Still she grasps at her shame. It is her ambition that degrades her. Why does the literary lady leave too often her infant to the hireling; her sick and her poor to chance charity? What is it that stocks the world with Harriet Martineaus, George Sands, and Lady Bulwers? Is it not the same hungering love for notoriety, the same misdirected ambition; misdirected still, though in another track? There is nothing unwomanish in the fullest exercise by woman of the thought and mind, which, if God has given, he has given for use. There is nothing unwomanish in the writing of such thoughts; nothing unwomanish even, we think, in the publishing of them. Society has accordingly permitted, and does permit, unblamed and unchecked, woman's fullest liberty in the exercise of her literary powers in every line; and she has, equally with the man, as far as she is able to use it, this theatre of effort open to her. If she has not, equally with the man, distinguished herself in it, it is because her talents and disposition do not indicate this as the career best suited to the fullest exercise of her faculties and virtues. It is *not her highest destiny.* It is *not her noblest life.* Nevertheless many women, with great and true woman-minds, have written, have published, and have done good, by so expanding the brighter developments of woman-thought.

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* It would be, as the ladies have justly remarked, mere quibbling. to contend that the word "*men*" in this oft quoted sentence does not mean (if it means anything) human beings, and includes them as well as cuffee.

But so soon as woman strives with man's ambition; so soon as she forgets the ruling thought of duty, letting its throne be usurped by the illegitimate hungering for fame and notoriety which so fatally misleads her, her writings, as her nature, become corrupted in the struggle. She has resigned herself to an ignis-fatuus guide, which fails never to plunge her into the mire of degradation. Man, like woman, may fall, and does fall, through similar causes, to similar degradation. But as the woman's fall is from a higher and a purer elevation, even so grovels she lower in her debasement, and closer and heavier clings to her its consequent soil. Because women have thus sinned we behold their punishment. Degraded they are, even in that proportion wherein they have erred. The ball-room coquette, in the midst of her triumph, is degraded in her heart and in her being. The brilliant George Sand, bold in her impudence and her talent, is degraded to the dust before the blushing mother, who watches that her innocent child shall not lay its hand upon the foul productions, wherein France's brilliant novelist often competes in obscenity with the nauseous filth spewed forth, as though in devilish scorn, by her compatriots, a Sue and a Dumas, upon a community sufficiently degraded to admire them. In a steady pursuit of duty such names would be perhaps entirely unknown. But dares any one say that they are better for being thus known? or is there anything but a sickly appetite for notoriety which could make such a position to be coveted? Is a Ninon de l'Enclos, a duchess of Pompadour, or a George Sand (indisputably celebrated women all of them) so good, so pure, or so noble in the eye of God, as the unknown mother who strokes to sleep the weary eye of her baby, and whispers to its waking thought her never-to-be-forgotten lessons of duty and of truth. Brilliant fallen ones the world have seen; but nature turns from them in sorrow. She glories not, but weeps for her fallen children.

It is this same misguided love for notoriety, which now misleads women to insist upon political rights, as they word their demand—that is to say, admission to the struggle for political distinction. And what is this that they ask? What, but that like the half-barbarous, half-heroic Spartan maid, they may be permitted to strip themselves to the strife, and wrestle in the public arena? Can civilized, Christianized woman covet such a right? They pretend, or they mislead themselves to the belief, that they are actuated by a pure desire to ennoble the sex. Let them look honestly and calmly to the bottom of the question, and they will see that it is but notoriety, not elevation, which they seek. In all derelictions from the right, the just, the holy, and the true, woman is responsible for her own degradation; inasmuch as it entirely proceeds from her own act, in casting herself out from her true position. She is herself, we repeat, the sole cause of it; and we wish to lay a stress upon this, because we maintain her to be a responsible, reasoning being, and not man's puppet. It is no excuse for her that man tempts her into folly. Man is unfortunately ready enough to tempt woman to err, and does not always stop to calculate the possible evil resulting from his pleasures and amusements. It amuses him to see the performances of the circus-clown, or the monkey-man. It pleases him to have woman for his toy. He will pay the former with his money, the latter with his flattery, and thus tempt to degradation, but he cannot degrade. The degradation can be accomplished only by the consent of the degraded. The accessory to murder cannot be held guiltless because tempted by his principal. No reasoning being can be made an accessory but by his own consent. We may pity the weakness that falls by temptation, but cannot receive it as exculpation from the crime, except by acknowledging, in so far as it is thus received, (as in the cases of infants or maniacs,) a defect or inferiority in the reasoning powers of the person misled. We allow no such defect or inferiority to woman, and therefore hold her fully responsible for her own course. Seeking notoriety and applause, if (as too often she does) she stoops to conquer, she stoops with her own free will. Man's wishes cannot degrade her. She degrades herself to man's wishes. Let her feel her duty as a woman, avoiding alike an undue valuation of man's applause, and an unworthy grappling with him for notoriety, and there is no shadow of degradation in her position. There may be no publicity, no far-spread reputation, no fame; but certainly there is no degradation in the holy, full, conscientious, and unguerdoned fulfilment of duty.

There are, undoubtedly, many false positions in which woman may be placed, where the fault is not so entirely her own as in the classes above noticed. But none of these are of the same vital importance, for by none of them is the woman-nature so entirely neutralized and destroyed. Our authoress attacks the established laws of society as defective, as not sufficiently protecting woman in the right of holding property; not sufficiently upholding her in the right of laboring for its acquisition; and, last and greatest, not sufficiently checking her in the right of getting married before she has the sense to know what she is about. We are far from maintaining that our laws are perfect in the varied system of checks and balances required, or that they may not exhibit some ill-jointed legislation upon these and many other subjects; but strongly suspect, from the legal instinct (intuition) displayed by Mrs. Smith, that if she and her compeers were set to put the laws to rights, we should have a strong compound of the Draconian and the barn-burner systems. Tyranny here, license there—lock doors and bolt windows on this side of the street, but over the way throw all open, pray for "the good time coming," and trust to "the law of our own intuitions." We should like to see Mrs. S. at the head of a family of some half-dozen young ladies of sixteen and thereabout, who had made up their minds to get married with or without permission. What system of restrictions and legal checks she could devise to keep her unruly little community in order, we think would be a vast puzzle to her genius, requiring a higher exercise of mind, of Christian charity, of philosophy, and of every noblest intellectual characteristic, than the writings of some scores of such volumes as that wherewith she has now seen fit to edify the public. We strongly suspect that much more could be effected in such a case by one sensible, matronly, gentle and judicious mother or aunt, kindly watching and counseling from that throne of woman, her own chair, by her own fireside, than by troops of voting and speech-making conventionist law-givers.

"If (says Mrs. Smith) any woman of genius is so untrue to herself as to say she should have been happier as an in-door, pains-taking, fireside woman; careful for the small savings of a household; holding the rod in terrorem over unruly urchins, and up in the morning early, to scold the servants, her nature satisfied with this ordinary manifestation of sex, she is from some cause disqualified for the holding of God's beautiful and abundant gifts in reverent stewardship; she is the Jew, better pleased with the worship of Apis than the sublime mysteries of Jehovah, looking to the fleshpots of Egypt, and turning from the heavenly manna."

Mrs. S., we presume, considers it a mark of *genius* to make oneself as happy as convenient, leaving duty to knock, unheeded, outside the door. We can only say, that the highest and most intellectual specimens of womanhood we have ever seen, scórning not the duty of managing children and servants, took into their hands and hearts the task which nature gave them, and fulfilled it, with the fullest powers of a God-given, soul-beaming intellect. If these were Jews worshiping Apis, Heaven preserve us from the *sublime mysteries* with which Mrs. S. would replace such worship!

"We must and will feel the stirrings of a great nature if it be great, and we are happy only as we obey its monitions. We are not happy in a half life, a half utterance; for the wealth struggles for its power; the smothered fire burns and consumes till it finds room for its healthful glow. A thousand women are ill-natured and miserable, not from positive ills about them, but from compression; they have that within, demanding space and indulgence, and they pine for its freedom—the laws of their life are not comprehended, and they sink into imbecile complaints, only because there is no voice to call them forth to freedom and light."

Still the question seems, not "what ought I to do," but "what would I like to do." It is, apparently, in the opinion of our authoress, sufficient excuse for a woman to be *ill-natured* and *miserable*, that she suffers *from compression*. A man, too, may, we suppose, suffer from compression as well as a woman. He may be as ill suited to the plow or the counting-house, as she is to the spindle or the nursery; but has he, therefore, the right to be "ill-natured and miserable?" Has he the right to say, "I am a genius, and it is an unjust fate that places me here?" Men, as well as women, certainly do follow such a course not unfrequently, grumbling very unnecessarily and very uselessly at the defects of this God-made world, which *they* would have made so much better. But we, until enlightened by these recent new-light developments, have always supposed that the old fable of the child crying for the moon, was the most usual, as well as most reasonable mode of answering such complaints against the orderings of life and destiny. Human cravings soar high. Perhaps there is no human being, not born in a state of imbecility almost as cramped as that of the oyster in his shell, who does not suffer, or fancy that he suffers, from compression. Shall we all begin to pout for the moon?—to be ill-tempered and miserable over our state of compression? Such are they, who—

"By the road-side fall and perish,
Weary with the march of life."

Such are they who wantonly waste the talent which God has given them. The true soul, the strong soul, with shoulder to the wheel, asks not, "How shall I be happy?" but "How shall I do right?" and, choosing its course, strives forward bravely, cheerily, and God-fearingly, to its goal.

> **"Sorrow and silence are strong, and patient endurance is God-like."**

Sisters, is it we who preach unto you degradation?—is it we who point you from the "heavenly manna" to "the flesh-pots of Egypt?"

In the little book before us, we find many a glimmering of the true consciousness of what woman ought to be—glimpses of genuine woman-nature, showing how difficult it is, even embroiled among such sophistries, to entirely corrupt it. But every where comes the adjunct, the unlucky reservation which spoils everything that is good and truthful in the thought. For good and truth there are, even here, stuggling, as ever they do struggle, at the groundwork of every error. Good and truth there are in the thought, which says that woman is not what she should be; but falsehood and mischief in the cry which hounds her on to these most unwomanish proceedings, by way of bettering a condition which needs not *change*, but *cure;* not *reform*, but *perfection.* Never spake prophet truer words than these of Mrs. Smith:

> "There is a Woman's sphere—harmonious, holy, soul-imparting; it has its grades, its laws from the nature of things."
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> "There is nothing more holy, more God-serving, ay, and more beautiful, than the steady, self-denying labor of the large class of women in the middle ranks of life, who, with woman-like dignity and solid sense, pursue a calling, humble and pains-taking, to earn an honest subsistence for their families. The lives of these women are often truly heroic, are silent, beautiful epics, breathing the best aspirations of poetry and romance."
>
> "I see no way in which harmony can result in the world without entire recognition of differences, for surely nothing is gained upon either side by antagonism *merely.*"

Alas! for that unlucky little word "*merely.*" Therein lies snugly hid away the mischievous devil who is whispering his reservations to the ear of our modern Eves. Antagonism is all right, we may suppose, though not *antagonism merely.* Happy would we be, however, did the reservation of our authoress end here; for, unfortunately, the mass of her little volume is one succession of bitter antagonism, illogical reasoning, romantic dreaming, and half-understood truths. We regret this the more, as she is evidently not one of the deepest-dyed reformers; and if (as we think not at all unlikely) she sports the "Bloomer," we will wager our newest gold pen that she "wears it with a difference." She is not "perfectly certain" of the efficacy of woman's-rights conventions; but she rejoices in the fact, that this "stirring of woman-thought originates in our own country," and sees no reason why women should not "associate, as do our compeers of the other sex, for the purpose of evolving better views, and of confirming some degree of power;" nor why "those who have a fancy to tinker a constitution, canvass a county, or preach the gospel, should not be permitted to do so, provided they feel this to be the best use of their faculties."

> "Hereafter, in the progress of events, I see no reason why the influence of woman should not be acknowledged at the ballot-box."
>
> "I do not know that I am prepared to say, as has been said, that women have a right to our halls of legislation, our courts of justice, our military posts, and each and all spheres where men 'most do congregate.'" * * *

She doubts;—but why? Not because woman is there entirely out of her place, but because (here the lady takes a plunge into the *infinite*) she thinks that a "pure state of society" is approaching wherein "these needs will pass away." "But"—she continues—

> "But, till 'the good time coming' arrive, let her be free to her own intuitions."

"Merrily swim we; the moon shines bright."

Verily, at this rate, we will soon be in the deep of the waters.

A step or two further, we will venture, under the guidance of Mrs. Smith's moonlight; warily, however, lest we find ourselves over head and ears in the bog, before we are ready for the plunge. The lady's own mind, as our readers may have perceived, does not appear to be quite determined on many of the most important points of her subject. She "sees no reason;" she is "not perfectly certain," &c., &c. What guide then does she propose to herself and us, through these labyrinthian mazes? "*Our intuitions are to be trusted.*" Here we are, then. Behold it,—the mystery of mysteries!—the inspiration!—the intuition! In a word, (although she does not just give it the fashionable name, perhaps because her mind is not quite made up,) the higher law!

> "Emancipate from external bondage, and the internal law, written upon every human heart, makes itself audible. Thus the most free are the most bound."

e. g.: the Mormon governor, with his score or threescore (we really forget which it is) of wives. Verily, *he is bound*, being most free.

Our authoress continues—

> "A woman is better when she acts *out of* her own spontaneity, tenfold, than when she attempts to conform to any theory."

This somewhat dubious expression, we take it, would be more clear if the "out of" we have italicized were replaced by "from;" and as to the merit of the sentiment, let it be judged of by what follows. Referring to the *duty* of a wife, she exclaims—

> "Duty! why it is the spontaneous, the natural action and privilege of her soul, not her cold duty; she, the true wife, does not say "it is my duty;" the law of God in her heart teaches a nicer view than this, a more intimate and sacred relation."

Good! if such be her spontaneity. But, what if the spontaneity lean on the other side? Wo, then, to the household over which she presides. Duty has gone to the dogs; the husband may go to the devil; and should there be any unlucky brats of things called children, which the feminine individual's spontaneity leaneth not kindly towards, let them also betake themselves to Old Nick, or where-ever luck may send them, while the lady spontaneously turns herself to the constructing of some woman's-rights constitution in readiness for "the good time coming."

> "Can they not, will they never learn, that the Good Father is wise in the bestowal of his gifts; that he does not impart a superfluous intelligence; that he does not create a desire without its appropriate, safe and harmonizing medium of gratification?"

Have we then no desires which we have not the right to gratify? This is a dangerous doctrine, which the most run-mad reformer of the day will, we think, scarcely undertake to carry to its extreme, without consigning the actor of it either to the gallows or the mad-house. Besides, we must remember that there are male spontaneities and intuitions, as well as female ones; the former possessing the indisputable advantage of being backed by physical force, which will secure, as it always has secured, male supremacy, in case of a clash between contending spontaneities. Man's "higher law" must certainly override woman's. What then is the necessary result to woman of such a combat of intuitions? What but the most fearful oppression exercised by an exasperated tyrant over a conquered foe; or, at best, the degrading kindness of the master-husband with his threescore wives? EXCELSIOR! Is this the height of Mrs. Smith's vision of perfected civilization? Why, the world is but just emerging from such a rule; and even the Grand Turk throws not the handkerchief so boldly as did his fathers. Let the weak cling to the law. For him or for her, the worst legislation is better than none. The rule of intuitions is the rule of brute force. What doth it benefit, that my intuition is clearer, brighter, truer than his? What matters it that my impulses are good while his are evil? If the evil be strong, if the dark be mighty, even evil will sweep away good; even darkness will conquer the light. Cling therefore to the law; for the law, however faulty, is still the feeble effort of right to embody itself into a rule which time and experience may perfect. It is the struggling forward of the spirit of good. It is the concession of the powerful evil to the weaker good. Ye who are feeble, ye who are oppressed! cling to the law, even although that very law may oppress you. That it does oppress you, is proof in itself that the strong were the makers of it. How then can you wrest it from them? How then can your feebleness better it? The law is a concession from the strong to the weak; and because the concession is but a lame one—is but a half-accorded justice—will the weak gain by its rejection? Will he not act more wisely to nurse and cherish it, if possible, to a nobler growth. Woman! thou whom Nature hath made to persuade and not to combat—to entreat but not to force—cling thou then to the written law.

Ay, e'en as to thine ark of safety, amid the surging billows, the deluge of brute force—cling even to its very letter. Better it, if thine influence may; but as thou valuest the rule of reason and of God, abolish it not to make way for intuitions and spontaneities.

Our lady reformers will answer, that they do not reject, that they would only reform the law. But stumbling in their darkness, they talk of they know not what. What becomes of written law, when such impertinent twaddle as the following is listened to?

> "In our Integrity we stand poised in our own Unity, a Law, a Life."
>
> "Yes, the sin about which so much is vaguely preached, is the violation of this great light within us. It is the putting out of the light in God's temple, that we may not see the requirements of his laws, all violations of which shall be revealed, as from the house-tops of our being. We must look within to learn these laws, and go forth in holy obedience."

Such was the law of a Robespierre, who looked within himself, and went forth in holy obedience to slaughter and to drown his country in blood. Such is the law of the Mormon, who, in holy obedience, takes to himself his threescore wives; such the law of the communist, the socialist, the Fourierist; and such finally of this new sect, as yet but limitedly known, which is, we learn, springing up in the interior of the State of New-York, and proving itself, even more than all these, grossly ready to follow "intuitions," in "holy obedience" to which, its members speak and act in a way to make common decency veil her eyes.

However, the ladies are aggrieved; let us return to them, and examine how they propose to right themselves.

> "When our fathers (says Mrs. Smith) planted themselves upon the firm base of human freedom, claimed the inalienable rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, they might have foreseen that at some day their daughters would sift thoroughly their opinions and their consequences, and daringly challenge the same rights."

Warlike this, rather. Again, elsewhere, in advocating marriage reforms, and woman's right to hold property, she remarks:

> "Allow woman the rights of property, open to her the avenues to wealth, permit her not only to hold property, but to enter into commerce, or into the professions, if she is fit for them. In that case she would assuredly take the stand that her forefathers took, that taxation without representation is oppressive," &c.

And of course, we presume, fight for that stand as her fathers did. The *voie de fait* is, after all, the only way of defending disputed rights in this world; and at this rate, ladies, it is time to throw aside your kid gloves, and accustom yourselves to something even more manlike than your satin and muslin Bloomer equipments.* Your fair hands must harden themselves to the management of Colt's revolvers, of bombs, grenades, and what not? But, ladies, room if you please, for one little thought. You know we had *mothers* as well as *fathers*—pilgrim mothers and patriot fathers. Women, true women they were; women of the home and of the hearth; women of true hearts and earnest faiths; of bold councils—ay, and when need was—of bold actions too. And yet these, disdaining neither their duties nor their petticoats, had nothing to do with votings and conventions, nor ever claimed the right "to our halls of legislation, our courts of justice, and our military posts." *Quære*, whether our fathers or our mothers, with all due reverence for both, were the truest models for their daughters' imitation. A glimmering of common sense seems to come over our authoress when she remarks that—

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* One word *en passant* of "the Bloomer." We really mean nothing disrespectful of the dress, which, as far as we know anything about it, is not only entirely unobjectionable,

> "The 'proud stomach' of the manish Bess had something to command respect, at least; and unless we can do, as well as talk, it were better to be silent."

Here has an evident little truth, plain enough for the comprehension of the simplest dairy-woman or cook-maid, escaped the pen of our reformist lady. But surely her mind, used to higher speculations, cannot stoop to comprehend it clearly, or she would cease to talk of woman's *daringly challenging her rights*. These ladies forget, when they cite their favorite exemplifications of woman's abilities in such characters as Shakspeare's Portia, and wise or warlike queens, that the first class are so entirely poetic as to require all Shakspeare's genius to cause them to be tolerated even on the stage; the simple truth, quoted above, that it is necessary to *do* as well as to *talk*, being sufficient to prevent their appearance in real life. Imagine Mrs. Smith, or any other real Bloomer or non-Bloomer, attempting the role of a Portia at the New-York bar. Does it need an argument to prove the certainty of her most egregious failure? The hissings of the street boys would soon settle the question in spite of her fancied logic. She may argue that the street boys are thus exhibiting a great want of decorum; that such a course is contrary to the philosophy

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but we decidedly think, from description, (we have never ourselves been so happy as to encounter a real live Bloomer,) a great improvement upon the dirty length of skirt, wherewith our fashionables sweep the pavements and clear off the ejected tobacco of our rail-road cars. The *dress* is not only convenient, but entirely modest; and could the same be said of its *wearers*, we would decidedly be of the number of its advocates. We object to it, not as intrinsically wrong in itself, but only in so far as it is used for wrong purposes. The Bloomer dress has been adopted as a kind of flag of rebellion against established usage, and when some good-tempered peace-makers, endeavoring to excuse it on the score of health and neatness, ventured to advance the plea that it was nothing new, inasmuch as a similar garb had been worn for centuries by eastern womanhood, forthwith a meeting of the Bloomers inform these ignorant meddlers, that they do not know what they are talking about; that the Bloomer is no eastern dress, but the chosen garb of such ladies, who consider themselves as having a full right to consult their own sense of propriety, and to indulge the freedom of their nature in the pursuit of health, happiness, and humbug! It is the rallying standard of woman's rights advocates, and as such unfit for a modest female. Had it been but the invention of some Parisian *modiste*, or some country, field-tripping milk-maid, or of any other womanish thing, imagined womanishly and worn womanishly, we would not have hesitated to recommend it to our daughters. But indifferent things become vicious entirely by their uses; and the uses to which the Bloomer dress has been applied condemn it *in toto*.

of things and the higher law; and that she being the *equal* ("all men are born free and equal") of the street boys, she has as good a right to hiss as they. Verily, the philosophy of things and the higher law must cede to the nature of things and the divine law. We deny that Mrs. Smith is the *equal* of the street boys. If she consent to degrade herself by the comparison, she sinks far below them; for while *they* are in their place, acting more or less perfectly in accordance with their being, *she*, in aiming to reverse the laws of nature, becomes an inferior in a position for which nature unfits her; a crawling counterfeit of man, instead of that noble, pure and exalted being which Nature intended, when, bestowing upon her woman's being and woman's instincts, she gifted her also with perhaps somewhat more than ordinary woman's intellect. Examples from poetry are no proofs of fact; and if ladies will borrow arguments from imaginary characters, why not take at once the powerful Minerva springing full-armed from the brow of Jove, and contend that the world is not, cannot, and shall not be considered as properly managed, until all the female sex shall have reached that point of perfection? As regards the position of governing queens, who with the "manish Bess have something to command respect," whence, we would ask, get they that something? Does their case show any power in the woman, whether different in its nature or differently exercised, at all deviating from that exhibited by the ordinary individuals of her sex in the ordinary duties of life? Have they anything inherent in their characters which enables them to conquer and maintain their position? or does their so maintaining it simply show, that when men are *willing* to be ruled—when they have *established laws for their own government*, they will submit to be reined even by the hand of a woman?—ay, and frequently the feeblest of women. Surely no one will contend that Queen Victoria, for instance, keeps her place either through talent, energy, or any other characteristic of her own, whether natural or acquired. If a woman becomes anywhere man's inferior, it is in such a position; which, being by nature unsuited to her faculties, makes her, in so far as she is the tool of the active and acting man, simply his puppet—a dressed-up doll, if you please, a worshiped statue; but still, only a doll and a statue. There is perhaps no woman in the world whose natural expansion of true woman-intellect and woman-nature is more shackled by circumstance and cramped by position than that of England's Queen. Her limited faculties are of a kind which are crushed rather than developed by her position. As a *queen* she receives the homage of her place, but as a *woman* she is certainly neither exalted nor perfected by it. Like all inefficient monarchs, who form but the centre points of acting governments, she stands a mere figure-head, which men have chosen to place at the head of the vessel of state, having no more agency in her own position than the literal wooden block from which we draw our figure. "The manish Bess," and others of her stamp, have, we grant, been something different. But besides the impossibility, which even they would have found, to retain their positions, had not the *prestige* accorded by man to their place separated them from the rest of their sex, the very epithet *manish* shows how far nature had isolated such from the mass. God forbid that we should look upon such isolation as a merit or a source of admiration! Rather do we regard it as a kind of moral monstrosity which may suit the queen, but not the woman. A hive thrives under its one queen-bee; but a community of such could never exist. A single queen Elizabeth might be tolerated, and, if suited to the taste of the nation over which she ruled, even admired; but a race of such monster-women could only exist as a race of Amazons. *Men* must disappear from a world where *men-women* should gain the ascendency.

This may be a very faulty arrangement, and perhaps the world would have been improved by some difference in the relative position of the sexes. Thus, no doubt, think our lady-champions. For our part, we have never allowed ourselves to speculate upon the propriety or impropriety of an arrangement, so evidently marked by the Almighty hand, that we have resigned ourselves to it as a fixed necessity, taking it for granted that here, as elsewhere, he has made all things good. When God created man, "male and female created he them." Male and female nature requires that they remain, not only in body and form, but in act and deed. We are sorry to be obliged so to offend the delicate sensitiveness of Mrs. Smith, as to use, and repeatedly use, the "obnoxious word *female*," which she considers so objectionable, as to deem it necessary on one occasion to make an apology for its use, even when introduced in a quotation, and in another remarks, "The persistent use of the obnoxious word *female* in our vocabulary, is proof of the light in which we are regarded." Now, we confess to the existence in ourselves of more blunted sensibilities. We—even we, the reviewer—must acknowledge ourselves of the feminine gender, of the female sex—woman; and can, in the fullest exercise of any intellect with which God has gifted us, feel, see, or discover no possible reason why we should find anything "obnoxious" in any of the above epithets. They can only become a reproach, they can only become obnoxious, by being applied where they ought not to be merited. They are insulting to men, because the characteristics which accompany them are generally unsuited to man; and their application implies that he has failed to bring himself up to the character which nature intended men generally to fulfil. They are becoming—they are suited—they are fitting to the woman, (be she true woman,) and the shame is not when she suits herself to, but when she avoids them. An epithet is objectionable only when the nature that it indicates is objectionable; and therefore the word "female," as indicating woman-nature, can only be obnoxious to the woman who mistakenly aims to rank herself in a position antagonistic to her nature. There is something out of joint in her reasoning, when she can come to the conclusion that "female" is an obnoxious epithet, or "manish" a flattering one. It is the high duty of every reasoning mortal to aim at the perfecting of his kind by the perfecting of his individual humanity. Woman's task is, to make herself the perfected woman, not the counterfeit man.

We have been obliged to confess ourself woman, because only as woman can we take the defensive in this question. Man is excluded from the discussion as a party interested against this female move, and the question is assumed to be one in which the sexes are placed in antagonism. Only as woman, therefore, can we attempt the defence of woman against a move, calculated in every step of its progress to lower her from the position which nature has accorded to her. Only as woman can we efficiently enter our protest against the folly and madness of ideas, of which, we do their woman-advocates the justice to believe, that there is not one in a thousand degraded enough to maintain them, could she logically deduce the inference from her own premises. There is enough of pure, enough of holy in the God-created and heaven-endowed woman-nature, to make it shrink from contact with the foul chaos which such a deduction would develop. In their ignorance they have done this. Mrs. Smith (of whom, once for all, we know nothing personally, and only in so far as she has published her theories, feel at liberty to take her as the exponent of the more quiet class of reformers) has in advance considered not only the antagonistic animal, man, as opposed to her theories, but also deprecates the admission of a large portion of her own sex to this argument. She divides womankind into three classes; and as we have confessed our womanhood, we will endeavor to satisfy ourselves, and let our readers judge, to which of these categories we shall be consigned, or whether we have the right, in the name of the female sex, to claim a different classification:

> "There is a large class of our sex so well cared for, 'whom the winds of heaven are not allowed to visit too roughly,' who are hemmed in by conventional forms, and by the appliances of wealth, till they can form no estimate of the sufferings of their less fortunate sisters."
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> "A class delicate, amiable, lovely even; but limited and superficial. These follow the bent of their masculine friends and admirers, and lisp pretty ridicule about the folly of 'Woman's Rights' and 'Woman's Movements.' These see no need of reform or change of any kind; indeed, they are denied that comprehensiveness of thought by which they could hold the several parts of a subject in the mind, and see its bearings. Society is a sort of grown-up mystery which they pretend not to comprehend, supposing it to have gradually developed to its present size and shape from Adam and Eve, by *natural gradation*, like Church Bishops."*

Need we enter our disclaimer against being included in this category? We believe, if our readers have followed us thus far, that they will need no argument to convince them that we are not of the above class of pretty lispers, and will credit our assertion when we claim to have lived long enough, and to have suffered enough, to learn that life is an earnest duty, and woman's share in it one of deep and soul-searching responsibility.

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* Our thanks, by the way, to Mrs. S. for this piece of information, quite new to us, with regard to the Bishops. We did not know that these Rev. gentlemen were *gradually developed* by *natural gradation*. We shall, in future, study with a double zest the beautiful developments of natural history, in hopes of further enlightening ourselves upon so interesting a question. The great Agassiz must hide his diminished head before this wonderful discovery of Mrs. Smith. What are his fish and his polypi to her Bishops?

> "Then there is another class doomed to debasement, vice, labor of body and soul, in all their terrible manifestations. Daughters of suffering without its ennobling influence; too weak in thought, it may be, to discern the best good; or, it may be, too strong in passion to resist the allurements of the immediate; or, it may be, ignorant only, they wake to the sad realities of life too late to find redress for its evils. These are the kind over whom infinite Pity would weep, as it were, drops of blood. These may scoff at reform, but it is the scoffing of a lost spirit, or that of despair. It is the blind utterance of regions denied the light of Infinite Love, and condemned to the Fata Morganas of depraved vision."

Again we beg leave to plead "not guilty." Among these "lost spirits," condemned to "blind utterances" and "Fata Morganas," believe us, gentle reader, we are not. The affections, as well as the duties of life, have laid upon us their guiding hand, teaching us to love, to suffer, and to hope. When our feet stumble in the path, as in all humility we confess right often they do, truly it is by human weakness, and no "Fata Morganas," that we are misled. Let us pass now to class No. 3, the elect of the sex, according to reformist creeds.

> "Then come the class of our sex capable of thought, of impulse, of responsibility—the worthy to be called Woman. Not free from faults any more than the strong of the other sex, but of that full humanity which may sometimes err, but yet which loves and seeks for the true and the good. These include all who are identified with suffering, in whatever shape, and from whatever cause; for these, when suffering proceeds from their own acts even, have that fund of greatness or goodness left, that they perceive and acknowledge the opposite of what they are. These are the ones who are victims to the falseness of society, and who see and feel that something may and will be done to redeem it. They are not content to be the creatures of luxury, the toys of the drawing-room, however well they may grace it—they are too true, too earnest in life, to trifle with its realities. They are capable of thinking, it may be far more capable of it than those of their own household who help to sway the destinies of the country through the ballot-box. They are capable of feeling, and analyzing too, the evils that surround themselves and others;—they have individuality, resource, and that antagonism which weak men ridicule, because it shames their own imbecility; which makes them obnoxious to those of less earnestness of character, and helps them to an eclectic power, at once their crown of glory."

We quote literally, that our readers may, should they possess sufficient profundity of intellect, seize the whole mysterious beauty of this sublime extract. For ourselves, credit us, O most indulgent reader—so little are we, in our humility, akin to this class of elect who sit crowned in eclectic power—that we really cannot even feebly comprehend the mystic signification of the "eclectic power, at once their crown of glory," here so mystically sketched. These reformist saints, as well as their sinners, are, we are free to confess, entirely beyond our matter-of-fact comprehension; and if we were more than bothered to grasp the idea of blind utterance and Fata Morgana ladies, we are now doubly mystified in our attempt to catch even the faintest outline signification of these beatific and inspired eclectics. Behold us, therefore, according to Mrs. Smith's classificaton, as we belong to none of her categories, fairly ousted, not only from our womanhood, but in no little danger of finding ourselves ultimately pushed altogether out of our humanity; for of the bearded species (Heaven help us!) we are, if we may trust our looking-glass, certainly not. Under penalty, therefore, of being classed among apes and elephants, or being picked up as a specimen of some new and undefined family of the vertebratæ, it will, we trust, be permitted us to enter our humble protest in favor of such of the female sex as, without having reached the sublime height of the eclectic crown of glory, may yet feel that they are neither "lost spirits," nor yet "toys of the drawing-room."

There certainly are, unless this world has been to us a dream, true women, of every grade of intellect, who belong to none of Mrs. Smith's categories. We find them varying, of every type, from the simple, confiding woman-heart, which, knowing little but the instinct of its nature, feels only that such instinct is to lean, and that its being is dependent, up through every nicely changing shade of individual loveliness and intellectuality, to the less happy, perhaps, but nobler existence, the highest model of womanhood—the woman of thought, of mind, of genius, and yet filled with deep-brooding woman-love and woman-nature. She, the earnest striver, wrestling with life's cares, but contemning not its duties, feels so sensibly her noble nature, that she scorns to degrade it by placing it in an unnatural antagonism with man's, and presents in her pure woman-existence, we truly think, the highest model to which humanity is capable of attaining. But, spirits of eclectic womandom! most certainly such a woman is not of *you;* for while she speaks neither in "blind utterances" nor pretty lispings, yet is she innocent of ballot-boxes and conventions. Such a woman needs not to make any man feel "shame of his imbecility;" nor to place herself in antagonism with any, whether weak or strong. Her mission is one of love and charity to all. It is the very essence of her being to raise and to purify whereever she touches. Where man's harder nature crushes, her's exalts. Where he wounds, she heals. The lowest intellect, be it but combined with a sincere nature, shrinks not from her, for in her it perceives, reflected and ennobled, its own virtues; the highest, worships, for it understands her. In every grade, then, between these two extremes, there are women—and we are proud to believe, in spite of the world's vices and its follies, the majority of women—whose very existence Mrs. Smith has, in her classification, entirely ignored; and these are the women, in defence of whose true womanhood we now venture to enter our disclaimer, in opposition to the assumed position of our lady-reformers, that, as the world is, woman "must use mean weapons because the nobler are denied her; she cannot assert her distinctive individuality, and she resorts to cunning, and this cunning takes the form of cajolery, deception, or antagonism in its many shapes, each and all as humiliating to herself as it is unjust to man." No true woman feels that the nobler weapons of life are denied her, because she cannot tinker at constitutions and try her hand at law-making. Her's are the noble weapons of philosophy and

Christianity. She may find it difficult to wield them, and, in her human weakness, sometimes murmur at the hardness of that lot by which a mysterious Providence has assigned a task so difficult to her feeble frame; but she cannot, she dare not call degrading, a task which, executed in its perfection, would make her the truest personification of our great Christian law. One advantage, at least, to cheer her in her path, she has over man. Her duty is always clear, while *his* may be doubtful. Her's is the Christian law of love and charity, to which (however passion may tempt) unvarying points the finger of duty. His is too often a divided struggle. She has but to strive and to pray; while he has to strive and to fight. She *knows* that to soothe, to comfort and to heal, is her highest duty. He *doubts* whether to wrangle, to strike and to wound, be not his. God, man and nature alike call upon her to subdue her passions, to suffer, to bear, to be meek and lowly of heart; while man, summoned by nature, and often by duty, to the whirl of strife, blinded in the struggle, forgets too often where wrath should cease and mercy rule. What, then, more beautiful than woman's task to arrest the up-lifted arm, and, in the name of an all-pardoning Heaven, to whisper to his angry passions—"Peace, be still!"

"I long," says Mrs. Smith, "to see my own sex side by side with men in every great work, and free to see the light, when his vision is dimmed with the dust of his chariot-wheels in the mighty race in which he is engaged." And how will she do this, if she throws herself even in the thick of the dust beside him. Let her stay where she is, out of the blinding-cloud of struggling passion, where, from the beautiful eminence on which nature has placed her, she looks down like some pitying saint, some angel of mercy, some ray of God's own sunlight glancing over a bloody battle-field, to soften, to cheer, and to bless. God forbid that ever she should sink to wallow in dust and blood beside him whom it is her duty and her privilege to rescue from the soil to which his nature clings! Woman the civilizer! woman the soother! how is your holy mission forgotten, striving thus to degrade itself!

"If," says our authoress, "if she be a simple, genial, household divinity, she will bind garlands around the altar of the Penates, and worship in content. If more largely endowed, I see no reason why she should not be received cordially into the school of Arts, or Science, or Politics, or Theology, in the same manner as the individual capacities of the other sex are recognized." And this, in Mrs. Smith's opinion, would be *raising* her condition. Too *largely endowed* for a household divinity, she casts aside that divinity, and who dares contemplate the struggle into which her feeble ignorance precipitates her. These reforming ladies have pushed forward in their move from the instigations of a most egregious vanity, which has induced them to consider themselves as so superior to the rest of their sex, that they have finally (as our quotations, a few pages back may show,) come to the conclusion and quietly assumed the ground, that they alone—they, the throned in "eclectic power"—are the thinkers of their sex. Our effort, through this article, has been to prove to them that they may perhaps be mistaken. We would now entreat them to look a little forward into the practicability and operation of their system. Allowing, for a moment, the fulfilment of their demands to be desirable, how do they propose enforcing it? Why have men always legislated, but because they have the power? and by what process is this power to be wrenched or coaxed from them? We presume our authoress, when the point of action should come, would hardly advise the sisterhood to so far imitate the deeds of their fathers, as to shoulder muskets in the cause. What then can they do, but ask the proposed reform through men, their legislators? Here then we have woman, by her own voluntary act, as seeking to graft man's nature upon her own, reduced to the degrading position so much deprecated by Mrs. Smith, wherein she "must receive happiness not as the gift of her Maker, careful for the well-being of the creature he had made, but as a boon from man—who had the *right* to make her miserable, but forebore the exercise of his prerogative." Herself grasping at rights not naturally belonging to her, places herself in the position of receiving, as a "boon from man," what her Maker has in his wisdom seen fit not to gift her with. Mrs. Smith vainly may answer that her improved system would make woman her own legislator. This is impossible. Power exercised through the tolerance of another is never a free power, but only in fact the delegated authority of him who tolerates. Woman legislators could thus act only under the influence and authority of men, because men would at any moment have the power, the might, to depose them. As we cannot fight, so we cannot enforce our claims—so we cannot insist. We can but entreat, we can but sway, we can but receive as a boon. If woman is to be admitted as co-legislator with man, it can only be through man's prior legislation. He must *give* the right, which she has not the power to *take*. Is this condition of things wrong? Go then, if it be, and cavil with the God who hath thus dictated it. *He* gave to the man the right, even as He gave him the power. *He* laid upon his strong right arm those folds of muscle by whose might he can rule, must rule—ay, and in all physical right ought to rule, all that God in his wisdom hath made weaker. Ought to rule, we say; because whatever God has made ought to be. Where *He* has seen fit to give checks and balances to the various powers of various beings, there we see Nature forces such checks and balances into action. To the man, for instance, pitted against the corporeally stronger beast, has been given the governing reason which forces the brute to crouch before him; and here, as elsewhere, *power* is the stamp and seal of God to indicate His will—the only real right of His creature. Man has then the corporeal, physical right to rule the woman, and she combats God's eternal law of order when she opposes it; combats it to her own undoing; for who can strive against God? Physically, then, she must be ruled, and submit her "proud stomach," be it her curse to bear one, to the necessities of her case.

Morally, physically, let us next consider what is woman's destiny? We believe, the highest. The beautifully developed soul is hers; and truly has Mrs. Smith said that woman is man's "superior in the elements that most harmonize life;" and only in her self-wrought debasement (a debasement brought about by her forgetfulness of her own individuality and her natural position) has she been forced to beg "for tolerance where she before had a right to homage—pleaded her weakness as a motive for protection, because she had laid aside her own distinctive powers, and become imbecile and subservient. Women must recognize their unlikeness; and then understanding what needs grow out of this unlikeness, some great truth must be evolved." This is as wisely said, as if the spirit of the great Solomon himself had placed itself at the lady's elbow, and made her his medium to knock out this spiritual truth for our benefit. But, alas! the spirit of wisdom is wearied soon of its work of charity, for even in the same paragraph follows the sentence we quoted above. Woman, she says, must seek her sphere; "if she be a simple, genial, household divinity, she will bind garlands around the altar of Penates, and worship in content. If more largely endowed, I see no reason why she should not," &c.

Now, *we* contend that to be a divinity, a genial, household divinity—not in that character, at least, to *worship*, (which by some confusion of thought Mrs. Smith has assigned as the occupation of a household divinity,) but to *be worshiped* at that holiest altar of the Penates, the home hearth; to be the soul of that home, even as our great Father-God is the soul of creation; to be the breath, the life, the love-law of that home; the mother, the wife, the sister, the daughter—such is woman's holiest sphere, such her largest endowment. This is the natural position from which she has stepped; this the individuality which she has forgotten; these the distinctive powers which she has laid aside, to become imbecile and subservient in the exercise of others unsuited to her nature. This beautiful recognition of her unlikeness to man, is the sole mystery of her existence; the one great truth which must be evolved to make woman no longer the weak plaything of a tyrannic master, no longer the trampled thing, pleading for tolerance at the foot of her conqueror, but the life, the soul, the vital heart of society; while in her and through her thus circulates the every throb of this great living world. She does not rule—she cannot rule by stump-speech, convention, or ballot-box; but she can rule, and she does rule, by the great quiet soul-power, which, silent as the blood through the arteries of life, throbs on for ever, ceasing but with the existence of the body which it vivifies.

Such is woman's noble task. Can any be nobler? What disgrace and degradation have ever fallen upon her, whether individually or in the mass, have been the result of, and in proportion to, her neglect or contempt of this her God-marked mission. "If more largely endowed!"—Is it from largeness of endowment, or is it from the cramping guidance of an ill-ordered intellect, that she is induced to throw herself out of such a position, to become a suppliant and an inferior in one whose duties are inconsistent with her nature? If woman will fulfil her destiny, let her put away from her head and heart the idea that she is man. Let her abandon the thought of an equality, or superiority, or inferiority, between the sexes, which exists neither in nature or fact, but simply in the mistaken views which men and women have both taken of the subject. Each is inferior, when attempting to fulfil a part destined to the other. A horse or an ass is certainly not the superior of man; and yet let man, or woman either, attempt to fulfil the duties of the poor brute, and how immeasurably inferior is he to the quadruped he rivals. We assure our conventionist sisters, that they are as ill qualified to perform the part of the man as the ass, and would advise them to attempt neither. The celebrated monkey-man, whose wonderful performances attract roars of applause from delighted audiences, is still far behind the veritable baboon whom he apes. Woman, in emulating man in his own sphere—and consequently out of hers, even though she succeed to the height attained by "the manish queen Bess," with "her proud stomach," so often quoted as proof of the powers of woman—holds still to man the second rate, inferior and imitative position, which the poor actor does towards the baboon; the belittling ambition of the monkey-man and the man-woman being equally but a sad model for the general imitation of society. Woman's sphere is higher, purer, nobler. She ought *not* "to be received into the schools of arts, or science, or politics, or theology, in the same manner as the individual capacities of the other sex are recognized."* She ought not to be so received, because her individual capacities are different. We do not bid her be ignorant of these matters. We do not say that her mind is incapable of grasping them. On the contrary, we believe that her capacities are fully suited to them, and that it is not only her right, but her duty, as it is that of every intelligent being, to forward the world's progress by the accumulative impulse of individual progress. Every mind has a thought which may be of benefit in the circle of its influence, and we sin in cramping that thought. Woman's mind is made for improvement, and her duty would lead her to seek that improvement, according to the inclination and capacities of her intellect. But that improvement must be gained and used, in a manner consistent and in harmony with her nature. Her arts and science are *not* for the public schools. Her theology is not for the pulpit; nor are her politics for those arenas of strife, where rougher man is soiled by the polluting struggle, and shrinks often in disgust from the stifling contamination. She may counsel, she may teach, she may uphold the weary arm of manhood—of the husband, the brother, or the son—and rouse him to the struggle for which nature never designed her; but she may not (without foregoing her nature) rush into the combat of blood, shouting man's war-cry and the victim's death. Side by side she may stand with man, to guide, to strengthen, to check or to soothe; but let her keep clear of the blinding "dust of his chariot wheels," that her eye may see and her tongue may counsel, by the clear dictates of her unstained soul, while *his* eye and spirit are alike dimmed in the strife. Woman, we believe, is designed by nature, the conservative power of the world. Not surely, therefore, useless, because comparatively inactive in the tumultuous rush and turmoil of life, she checks oftener than she impels. The lock-chain which arrests the downward rushing and precipitously destructive course of the ever forwardly impelled vehicle, is not useless because temporarily allowed to rest in the up-hill tug. Life and limb are saved by the proper use of that, which, injudiciously applied, would be in itself destruction.

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* Our readers, we trust, do not hold us responsible for the halting grammar of our authoress, (or her printers,) which has, we confess, puzzled us in more sentences than the remarkable eclectic glorification one, though we have not always stopped to note it.

That "good time coming," the political millennium towards which Mrs. S. looks forward, when "the lion will lie down with the lamb, and the sting shall be taken from whatever is noxious, and the dragon of restrictive and retributive law loosen its folds upon human society," will certainly never be brought about by woman's conventions, woman's speeches, nor woman's votes. Rather, if the world shall ever see it, will it be perfected by the home divinity of woman, whispering her truths to the heart of man, wrapping his soul in the inspiration of a revealed duty, and bearing him upward and onward to the fulfilment of that duty. Is it a degradation to *her*, if, while thus ennobling man by her all-pervading influence, he fail, as much as he might, to profit by it, and sometimes in his error may even scoff and sneer at her? No; only when that scoff and sneer rouse her to unfeminine resistance, or still more unfeminine imitation, is the evil done. Then, indeed, are both degraded in the sin of both. Thus woman's weakness in its human imperfection truly often errs; but, again, nobly often, spite of scoff and sneer, does woman's strength soar almost above humanity, whilst bending beneath ills too great for man's endurance, she humbly joins in that Godlike prayer of resignation, "Father, if it be thy will, let this cup pass from me; nevertheless, not as I will, but as thou wilt." Can there be degradation in bearing the cross of patient endurance midst rebuff and wrong, even to the great Calvary of self-abnegation and triumphant love? Woman! if man forgets his duty, what nobler lesson than to recall him to it, by remembering yours? What more degrading, at once to yourself and to him, than to fight and squabble like hungry dogs over a bone, for a something which, even could its acquisition be proved desirable to your sex, you are still called to, not by duty, but simply by wish and appetite. We are no enemy of woman, but rather have ventured, as her champion, upon this her defence; believing that the recent demonstration, among certain members of her own sex, is at once the most degrading, the most insulting to her, and the most dangerous attack that can be made upon her true liberty. Liberty is never license. It is the freedom to fulfil, in their highest perfection, the duties of our God-given being. The true defender, therefore, of woman's rights and woman's liberty, asks only that she may be permitted to perfect, not to alter her nature.

In conclusion, let us remark, for those of the masculine gender, who (if there be any such) may perchance think our authority worth quoting against womandom,—that we beg not to be misunderstood. Our argument being solely against the female move, our effort has been to show its false assumptions and ludicrous inefficacy; but we have not, therefore, intended to signify that man is sinless towards woman. Far from it. If we have endeavored to lay upon woman the burden of her own sin, as a reasonable, responsible being, and to prove to her how necessary is the exercise of her own inward strength for the performance of life's duties, and how doubly necessary it becomes to her, through physical weakness, that she should guard herself in the position where God and nature have placed her—we have endeavored to be the more forcible in so doing, because we consider her danger doubled through man's constant thoughtless and often heartless oppression. She must guard not only against her own folly and her own weakness, but also against his. If we have pointed out her aberrations from duty, and blamed or ridiculed her short-comings, it is not that we would make her the butt of man's ridicule, who has sinned both with her and against her, but because we consider her as more than him disinterested, more than him swayable by the purer instincts, and more than him exalted above the passions of our common nature. If woman has erred, to man, clamorous in her accusation, we would say—"He that is without sin among you, let him first cast a stone at her." Man the oppressor, man the tempter, will he dare to strike? or rather, checked by the holy word of reproof spoken to the repentant Magdalen, will he not take to his bosom the lesson intended for her? Happy would it indeed be for both, could each, in the holy fulfilment of the duties of their differing spheres, "*go and sin no more.*"

L. S. M.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE FLORIDA COTTON PLAN AGAIN.

A correspondent has addressed us the following, and as we promised to open our pages to the discussion of the "Florida Scheme," we insert it. He will excuse us for omitting the part in which he goes into an exposition of what that scheme is, it having been so fully set forth in our eleventh and twelfth volumes. We shall always be happy to hear from our friend, whether we agree with him upon all points or not.

"Can any of the other plans which have been suggested, do for us that which the plan of the report proposes to accomplish; and can that plan be conducted without such failures as are incident to stock companies? There are various plans offered, among which we find that of raising less cotton, of not offering more in any one season than a given number of bales, by making it an honorable obligation not to sell for less than a fixed price. Any of those plans would remedy the evil complained of, if they could be made to work, but in all of them concert is necessary to a great extent, and will require frequent renewals; then the death of the parties would make annual difficulties. The plan which has attracted the most attention, is direct exportation, with the view of multiplying new markets; this is important, as it will provide us with foreign goods, without unnecessary expenses being added; and by making several rival depots for cotton, the truth in regard to the surplus would be known with more accuracy, which would have the tendency to establish the price of cotton according to supply and demand. Markets may be multiplied to consume double the cotton we can raise, or, if you please, we may establish mills here at home, to manufacture the entire average crop, yet this would not remedy the evils of irregular production; because capital will not be continued in the manufacturing business to a greater extent than a regular supply of cotton would justify, and it cannot be used until manufactured; hence, when we make a heavy crop, which happens once in three or four years, a surplus is thrown on the market, and prices must go down, and stay so, until the surplus is worked up by the addition of mills, or it is reduced by a short crop; this has ever been the case, and must continue to be, unless some method is adopted by which it can be withheld from the market. And it is here we call to our aid the Planters' Association, which we believe will furnish the remedy, but can it continue to do so without a failure? Suppose the charter was to forbid, under the penalty of forfeiture, the creation of debt, likewise speculation in its stock, that it should not be sold for more than first cost, and that, after being offered to the association for purchase, the field of operation be specified, and strictly confined within its limits. I ask, where is the chance of failure with such restrictions? If they made nothing, no loss would occur except interest, and that would be more than realized in a permanently fair price for cotton, and the enhanced value of property; but I think it has been clearly shown, that the association could realize a handsome profit to themselves, save millions from the aggregate expenses on cotton, and add much to the planters' income. Does the South, as a section, need such an association (without reference to cotton) for the purpose of showing forth her wealth and importance in a commercial, manufacturing, and political sense? If we examine the statistics, showing the property of the states, view our seaport towns, and our resources for manufacturing purposes, the conclusion would be that she did. Her respect abroad, and usefulness at home, require an embodiment of her active capital. In proof of this, see the vassalage of her cities, the waste lands in the interior, her comparatively small population rapidly diminishing, and with it political importance, manufactures in a state of infancy, and commercially unknown beyond her limits. And this, too, in the face of the fact, that the Southern states own more property per head, at cash valuation, than any other people. They make, almost exclusively for commerce, an article (cotton) which is indispensable to the comfort of enlightened nations, and forms the basis of their commerce; an article with which no other is comparable in power, most others ceasing to exert influence when in the hands of those that want them; but our Southern staple furnishes support to millions employed in making, to thousands in managing it into the hands of myriads that derive a support from manufacturing it; the existence of Great Britain, as a government, hangs almost on it; and after it is manufactured, a reflex power commences equal to the direct, and continues to exert an influence until distributed by the retail shops, and is worn out. Let the South embody, of her abundant means, a sufficiency, in the hands of an association of her own people, for the purpose of protecting field-labor and developing her other resources, and make manifest to our own and foreign nations the importance of our peculiar institution, politically and commercially. It would exert an influence equal to twenty additional members in Congress, and teach Great Britain that the well-being of much of her population depends on our business of planting; thus conquer opposition to our institution of domestic slavery, "not like Cæsar, all stained with blood," but by the peaceful influence of cotton bales.

"A COTTON PLANTER."

2.—NEW METHOD OF MANUFACTURING SUGAR.

We find in Wilmer & Smith's European Times a communication from a correspondent at Porto Rico, stating that Don Juan Ramos, a native of the Island, has originated and perfected a "new method of manufacturing sugar, which appears calculated to produce the most materially beneficial change in the quality of Muscovado sugars throughout the world, as it possesses the extraordinary merit of requiring no change in existing apparatus, and involves the necessity of no additional outlay; while it is so simple in its application as to be easily acquired, and, however unfavorable the circumstances under which it is adopted, it will infallibly secure the long sought-for desideratum of vastly improving the *quality* and greatly augmenting the *quantity* of sugar produced, as contrasted with the imperfect system now universally practised." The writer says:—

"The actual agency employed by Mr. Ramos in producing the extraordinary results which he obtains, is of course a secret; but the great virtue of the discovery undoubtedly consists in the application of a certain ingredient, probably some vegetable extract, to the cleansing of the liquor, an operation which it certainly performs in the most effectual manner, separating an astonishing amount of impurity from liquor which has apparently been perfectly cleansed, and upon which the tempered lime, previously applied, has ceased to exercise any effect."

Every publicity has been given to the experiments made by the inventor in various parts of this island, and they have uniformly resulted in the most triumphant success, and there remains no longer a doubt of the importance of the discovery, and that it is one calculated, from its cheapness and singular efficiency, to supersede all other methods hitherto employed in the manufacture of raw sugar.

In support of this assertion, I adduce the following statement of the result of the experiment made by Mr. Ramos, on the estate "Perseverance," a very well-managed property belonging to the well-known merchants, Messrs. Pratts & Co., of Ponce. On this estate seventy-nine coppers of liquor were ground, and the exact number of gallons of cane juice were ascertained, which produced, under what I must now call the old system—

27½ hhds. sugar, weighing net 30,256 lbs, valued at $2,87½ per 100 lbs......	$869 91
15 puns. molasses, containing 2,080 gallons, valued at 10 cents per gallon....	203 00
Total..	$1,077 91

Under exactly the same circumstances, from the same cane pieces, and with exactly the same quantity of cane juice, Mr. Ramos produced, with less trouble, time and expense, the following result:—

34 hhds. sugar, net weight 33,192 lbs, valued at $3,62½ per 100 lbs	$1,203 21
4 hhds. more made from the molasses, weighing net 4,545 lbs, valued at $3,12½ per 100 lbs	142 03
16 puns. molasses, containing 1,752 gallons, valued at 10 cents per gallon	175 20
Total	$1,520 44

This trial, which was witnessed by a large number of intelligent and influential planters, and the result of which, as above stated, was attested by judicial documents signed by some of the first merchants of Ponce, exhibits a balance in favor of Mr. Ramos in the advantage gained in quantity and quality combined, of $442,53, or about 41 per cent. Mr. Ramos *guarantees* that the gain in *all* instances shall not be *less than twenty per cent.*

The new system has since continued in full work on the "Perseverance" Estate, where upwards of 100 hhds. have been made under the superintendence of the manager, Mr. Ramos having left immediately after the trial for another part of the island, after having supplied the necessary instructions and a requisite quantity of the ingredient previously referred; and it is a sample of these sugars now making by the manager that I have the pleasure to transmit to you.

Mr. Ramos has taken out patents in this island and in Cuba, protecting the rights of his invention, and is taking steps also to secure his privileges in such other countries where the adoption of his system would be obviously advantageous. He has already entered into engagements with a large number of individuals and with some entire districts in this country, to sell to them the right to the use of the discovery for a trifling remuneration in each case, by which, however, he secures to himself a large sum, the collective amount reaching already to some $300,000.

This new system, which will rapidly come into general adoption, may lead to the most extraordinary changes now impossible to foresee; but one inevitable result attendant upon its success would seem to be the speedy annihilation of beet root sugar, which would evidently be unable to compete to advantage with Muscovado sugar under such greatly improved auspices.

The editor of the Times has received a sample of sugars made in Puerto Rico by the new process, and he says:—

"Whether with regard to quality, color, or strength, this sample of Muscovado sugar has elicited the admiration of all who have seen it. An eminent mercantile house, to whom the sample has been shown, pronounce it to be worth 39s., whilst a similar quality manufactured by the old process, is selling in Liverpool at 28s. 6d., so that while the quantity is largely increased, as we have demonstrated, the value of the sugar is raised to the extent of ten shillings per cwt."

3.—GUANO FOR SOUTHERN FIELDS.

The United States have just concluded a treaty with Peru, in which no provision is made for the free taking of Guano on her coasts or islands. The British, more adroit, incorporated this in their treaty. To discuss the point, however, is beyond our present purpose. We would simply discuss the subject agriculturally in an extract from the Alabama Planter.

By a judicious system of rotation of crops and proper shift, after grade, ditching and horizontaling your rows, with the application of 200 lbs. of guano per acre, spread broadcast for small grain crops, and about 250 lbs. for drill or hill crops, in addition to the pay of good crops, in a very few years any of our *badly mangled land* may be restored to its original fertility. Its proper application is simple, convenient and expeditious; and the true philosophy, doubtless, of its most economical use, consists in feeding the plant directly, rather than in manuring the land.

For garden vegetables, either for profit or for the pleasure of enjoying them to perfection, a large quantity of guano will be required per acre; but not, however, at the first dressing. In the preparation of your garden beds, or squares, put on, say in the proportion of two hundred pounds per acre, broadcast, and spade and plough up the land *thoroughly and deep;* and then line your rows and sow your seed in drills. Your plants being up, you can treat them just as you would *a pig*, that you intended to grow to a given size in a given length of time—*feed and water every day!* When you stir the ground about the plants, which should be done frequently, sprinkle enough of finely pulverized guano on the surface near the plants to give the ground a yellowish tinge, then gently hoe or rake it into the soil. In addition to this, you may, every evening, or as often as you wish, sprinkle the plants with a solution of guano, from a watering-pot; make the solution by dissolving six to eight ounces of guano in three gallons of water, well stirred up. The only danger is an over supply at a time.

I have used guano, compounded and alone, on all varieties of field crops, and I am satisfied—as the experience of any planter using it will very soon teach him—that it will not pay to spend time in compounding guano with any other article. Lime, ashes, and all wet substances, are a positive injury, as they liberate its valuable gases, and its compost with dry substances, such as wet and light mould, &c., augment the labor of applying it to the land without a corresponding remuneration. I am not to be understood here as depreciating the value of lime, ashes, muck, or any of this class of valuable fertilizers; by no means. I know their value too well; but I do state emphatically, that the time consumed in preparing such compost, is money lost, for reasons at once obvious and plain. As stated above, two hundred pounds of guano spread broadcast upon land per acre, and well plowed in, and the grain then sowed, either wheat, oats or rye, and the land harrowed smoothly and properly, will reward the pains-taking of the industrious farmer with a luxuriant and large crop. Land thus prepared will produce a heavy crop of Indian corn also, though I prefer applying it to corn after the plant has come up, after the following simple and expeditious method: When the corn has grown to three or four blades, run round tolerably close with a scooter plow, which is followed by a boy with a bucket of guano and a teaspoon. who will drop a spoonful of the guano opposite each hill, in the scooter furrow. This gives about two teaspoonfuls of guano to each hill, or about two hundred and fifty pounds per acre. The guano thus deposited should be covered immediately, which is done by the next furrow in ploughing out the row. Forty to fifty bushels may be grown in this way upon very ordinary land.

I use guano to my cotton in the same way, after the cotton is up and ready for ploughing the first time, as I regulate my stand of cotton at the time of planting by a compass or dibble, in the hills on the bed, at exact distances of twenty-four, thirty to thirty-six inches, according to the improved condition of the land. There is another mode of using guano upon cotton seed that possesses much merit, which is this: after wetting and rubbing the seed until separated, which they do very readily, then roll them in *dry pulverized* guano and plant them immediately; a process immeasurably superior to rolling the seed in plaster, lime or ashes, each of which, however, is beneficial.

4.—ORGANIZATION OF COTTON PLANTERS FOR OBTAINING STATISTICS OF GROWING CROPS.

A Society has been lately established in Marengo County, Alabama, which should also exist in every county throughout the Cotton States. Its objects are best explained in the language of one of its Committees. The society was organized as follows:—Gen. C. A. Poellnitz, President; Capt. C. Rembert, Dr. L. B. Lane, and John H. Prince, Esq., Vice-Presidents; Thomas J. Wolfe, Esq., Secretary, and William King, Esq., Treasurer.

A. S. Cade and Caleb Williams, members of the Executive Committee; Dr. W. S. Price to report to this Society the statistics of the cotton crop. A. P. Calhoun, Esq., appointed delegate under the constitution to represent this society in any Planters' Convention in the southern states, and Dr. T. A. Harrison his alternate. Dr. Sydney Smith and Col. R. C. Du Bose appointed, with the secretary, to constitute the committee on publications and correspondence. The 8th, 9th, 10th, and 11th resolutions are important.

"8. There shall be appointed at each regular meeting one of the members—whose duty it shall be to report in writing to the next regular meeting after such appointment, the rate of consumption and stocks of cotton in this and in foreign countries, with any other information he may think pertinent to the subject.

"9. There shall be a committee of four appointed for each beat in the county, at the regular meeting in October, whose duty it shall be to report to the next regular meeting the accurate amount of cotton that has been gathered in their respective beats on the first of January preceding.

"10. There shall be a committee of four appointed for each beat in the county at the regular meeting in January, whose duty it shall be to report with as much accuracy as possible to the regular meeting in October, the probable amount of the growing crop of cotton, likewise the crop of the year preceding in their respective beats.

"11. There shall be elected by ballot at each regular meeting in October, a delegate, (and an alternate appointed,) whose duty it shall be to attend and represent this Society in any Planters' Convention that may be called in any of the Southern States, (having similar objects with this society) and make a report of all that he may learn that will be of interest to this society, at the first regular meeting thereafter: the necessary expenditure to be paid by the Treasurer, and his accounts filed.

"Your Committee believe that much of the sudden derangement in the price of Cotton is attributable to the tardiness with which the amount of the American crop is ascertained, and hence during the early and middle parts of the season, it is in the power of all parties interested to magnify or diminish the estimate as best suits their interest for purchasing from the planter, or selling any stocks they may have on hand.

"And in the absence of any organized plan by which the crop can be known until the termination of the commercial year (which is the 1st of September) one year after the crop is made. Planters are kept in suspense as to the amount of the crop, the relation of supply and demand, and the uncertainty of higher or lower prices. Finally, in this state of confusion, they look to the newspaper statements, and without any calculation or data whatever that is based on facts, order their crops to be sold. In a short time they are informed that they have taken less or got more than their cotton was worth, according to the only true rule, that of supply and demand.

States and Territories	Acres Improved	Acres Unimproved	Cash value of farms	Value of farming implements and machinery	Horses	Asses and Mules	Milch Cows
Maine	2039596	2515797	54861748	2284554	41721	55	133556
New-Hampshire	2251488	1140926	55245997	2314125	34233	19	94277
Vermont	2591879	1525368	59727731	2790237	61057	218	146146
Massachusetts	2133436	1222576	109076347	3209584	42216	34	130099
Rhode Island	356487	197451	17070802	497201	6168	1	23098
Connecticut	1768178	615701	72726422	1892541	26879	49	85461
New-York	12408968	6710120	554546642	22084926	447014	963	931324
New-Jersey	1767991	984955	120237511	4425503	63955	4089	118736
Pennsylvania	8628619	6294728	407876099	14722541	350398	2259	530224
Delaware	580862	375282	18880031	510279	13852	791	19248
Maryland	2797905	1836445	87178545	2463443	75684	5644	86859
District of Columbia	16267	11187	1730460	40220	824	57	813
Virginia	10361155	15792176	216401441	7021772	272403	21460	317619
North Carolina	5453977	15543010	67891766	3931532	148693	25259	221799
South Carolina	4072651	12145049	82431684	4136354	97171	37483	193244
Georgia	6378479	16442900	95753445	5894150	151331	57379	334223
Florida	349049	1236240	6323109	658795	10848	5002	72876
Alabama	4435614	7702067	64323224	5125663	120001	59895	227291
Mississippi	3444358	7046061	54738634	5762927	115460	54547	214231
Louisiana	1590025	3399018	75814398	11576938	89514	44849	105576
*Texas	639107	14454669	16392748	2133731	75419	12364	214758
Arkansas	781531	1816684	15265245	1601296	60197	41559	93151
Tennessee	5175173	13808849	97851212	5360220	270636	75303	250456
Kentucky	11368270	10972478	154330262	5169037	315682	65609	247475
Ohio	9851493	8146000	358758603	12750585	463397	3423	544499
Michigan	1929110	2454780	51872446	2891371	58506	70	99676
Indiana	5046543	7746879	136385173	6704444	314299	6599	284554
Illinois	5039545	6997267	96133290	6405561	267653	10573	294671
Missouri	2924991	6767937	63057482	3963945	223593	41508	228553
Iowa	824682	1911382	16657567	1172869	38536	754	45704
Wisconsin	1045499	1931159	28528563	1641568	30179	156	64339
California	62324	3831571	3874041	103433	21719	1666	4280
Minnesota	5035	23846	161948	15981	860	14	607
Oregon	132857	299951	2849170	183423	8046	420	9427
Utah	16333	30,516	311799	84288	2429	325	4861
New-Mexico	166201	124,370	1653952	77960	5079	8654	10635
	118435178	184596025	3266925537	151605147	4325652	559070	6391946

States and Territories	Working oxen	Other cattle	Sheep	Swine	Value of live stock	Wheat, bushels	Rye, bushels
Maine	83893	125890	451577	54598	9705726	296259	102916
New-Hampshire	59027	114606	384756	63487	8871901	185658	183117
Vermont	48497	154025	919992	66278	12640248	525925	176207
Massachusetts	46611	83284	188651	81119	9647710	31211	481021
Rhode Island	8189	9375	44296	19509	1532637	49	26409
Connecticut	46988	80226	174181	76472	7467490	41762	600893
New-York	178909	767406	3453241	1018252	73570499	13121498	4148182
New-Jersey	12070	80455	160488	250370	10679291	1601190	1255578
Pennsylvania	61527	562195	1822357	1040366	41500053	15367691	4805160
Delaware	9797	24166	27503	56261	1849281	482511	8066
Maryland	34135	98595	177902	352911	7997634	4494680	226014
District of Columbia	104	123	150	1635	71643	17370	5509
Virginia	89513	669137	1310004	1830743	33656659	11232616	458930
North Carolina	37309	434402	595249	1812813	17717647	2130102	229563
South Carolina	20507	563935	285551	1065503	15060015	1066277	43790
Georgia	73286	690019	560435	2168617	25728416	1088534	53750
Florida	5794	182415	23311	209453	2880058	1027	1152
Alabama	66961	433263	371880	1904540	21690112	294044	17261
Mississippi	83485	436254	304929	1582734	19403662	137990	9606
Louisiana	54968	414798	110333	597301	11152275	417	475
*Texas	49982	636805	99098	683914	10266880	41689	3108
Arkansas	34239	165320	91256	836727	6647969	199639	8047
Tennessee	86255	414051	811591	3114111	29978016	1619386	89163
Kentucky	62074	442763	1102121	2861163	29591387	2140822	415073
Ohio	65381	749067	3942929	1964770	44121741	14487351	425718
Michigan	55350	119471	746435	205847	8008734	4925889	105871
Indiana	40221	389891	1122493	2263776	22478555	6214458	78792
Illinois	76156	541209	894043	1915910	24209258	9414575	83364
Missouri	111268	445615	756309	1692043	19766851	2966928	44112
Iowa	21892	69025	149960	323247	3689275	1530581	19916
Wisconsin	42801	76293	124892	159276	4879385	4286131	81253
California	4780	253599	17574	2776	3351058	17328	—
Minnesota	655	740	80	734	92859	1401	125
Oregon	8114	24188	15382	30235	1876189	211943	106
Utah	5266	2489	3262	914	546968	107702	210
New-Mexico	12257	10085	377271	7314	1494629	196516	—
	1698261	10265180	21621489	30315719	543822711	100479150	14188457

* The County of Lavaca in this state is not included in this aggregate;

States and Territories	Indian Corn, bushels of	Oats, bushels of	Rice lbs	Tobacco, lbs.	Ginned Cotton, bales of 400 lbs. each	Wool, lbs.	Peas and Bns., bush.	Irish Po., bushels
Maine	1750056	2181037	—	—	—	1364034	205541	3436040
New-Hampshire	1573670	973381	—	50	—	1108476	70856	4304919
Vermont	2032016	2307714	—	—	—	3410093	104649	4951014
Massachusetts	2345490	1165106	—	138246	—	585136	43709	3585384
Rhode Island	539201	215232	—	—	—	129692	6846	651029
Connecticut	1935043	1158738	—	1267624	—	497454	19090	2689725
New-York	17858400	26552814	—	83189	—	10071301	741636	15398368
New-Jersey	8759704	3378063	—	310	—	375396	14174	3207236
Pennsylvania	19835214	21538156	—	912651	—	4481570	55231	5980732
Delaware	3145533	604518	—	—	—	57768	4120	240542
Maryland	11104631	2242151	—	21407497	—	480226	12816	764939
District of Columbia	65230	8134	—	7800	—	525	7754	32142
Virginia	35254319	10179045	17154	56805218	3947	2860765	521581	1316933
North Carolina	27941051	4052078	5465868	11984786	73249	970738	1584252	620318
South Carolina	16271454	2322155	159930613	74285	300901	487233	1026900	136494
Georgia	30080099	3820044	38950691	423924	499091	990019	1142011	227379
Florida	1996809	66586	1075090	998614	45131	23247	135359	7828
Alabama	28754048	2965697	2311252	164990	564429	657118	892701	246001
Mississippi	22446552	1503288	2719856	49960	484293	559619	1072757	261482
Louisiana	10226373	89637	4425349	26878	178737	109897	161732	95632
*Texas	5926611	178883	87916	66897	57596	131374	179332	93543
Arkansas	8893939	656183	63179	218936	65346	182595	285738	193832
Tennessee	52276223	7703086	258854	20148932	194532	1364378	369321	1067844
Kentucky	58675591	8201311	5688	55501196	758	2297403	202574	1492497
Ohio	59078695	13472742	—	10454449	—	10196371	60168	5057769
Michigan	5641420	2866056	—	1245	—	2043283	74254	2359897
Indiana	52964363	5655014	—	1044620	14	2610287	35773	2083337
Illinois	57646984	10087241	—	841394	1	2150113	82814	2514861
Missouri	36069543	5243476	700	17100884	—	1615860	45974	934687
Iowa	8656799	1524345	500	6041	—	373898	4775	276120
Wisconsin	1988979	3414672	—	1268	—	253963	20657	1402077
California	12236	—	—	1000	—	5520	2292	9292
Minnesota	16725	30582	—	—	—	85	10002	21145
Oregon	2918	65146	—	325	—	29686	6566	91326
Utah	9899	10900	—	70	—	9222	289	43968
New-Mexico	365411	5	—	8467	—	32901	15688	3
	592141230	146533216	215312710	199739746	2468625	52518143	9219642	65781751

States and Territories	Sweet Pts., bushels	Barley, bushels	Buckwheat, bushels	Val. of Orchard Products in dols.	Wine, gallons	Value of Produce, Mkt. Gds.	Butter, lbs.	Cheese, lbs.
Maine	—	151731	104523	342865	724	122387	9243811	2434454
New-Hampshire	—	70256	65265	248563	344	56810	6977056	3196563
Vermont	—	42147	208699	315045	659	18853	11871451	8720834
Massachusetts	—	112385	106095	463995	4688	600020	8071370	7088142
Rhode Island	—	18875	1245	63994	1013	98298	995670	316508
Connecticut	80	19099	229297	175118	4269	196874	6498119	5363277
New-York	5623	3585059	3183955	1761950	9172	912047	79766094	49741413
New-Jersey	508015	6492	878934	607268	1811	475242	9487210	365756
Pennsylvania	52172	165584	2193692	723389	25590	688714	39878418	2505034
Delaware	65443	56	8615	46574	145	12714	1055308	3187
Maryland	208993	745	103671	164051	1431	200869	3806160	3975
District of Columbia	3497	75	378	14843	863	67222	14872	1500
Virginia	1813671	25437	214898	177137	5408	183047	11089359	436292
North Carolina	5095709	2735	16704	34348	11058	39462	4146290	95921
South Carolina	4337469	4583	283	35108	5880	47286	2981850	4970
Georgia	6986428	11501	250	92776	796	76500	4640559	46976
Florida	757226	—	55	1280	10	8721	371498	18015
Alabama	5475204	3958	348	15408	220	84821	4008811	31412
Mississippi	4741795	229	1121	50405	407	46250	4346234	21191
Louisiana	6428453	—	3	22359	15	148329	683069	1957
*Texas	1323170	4776	59	12605	99	12254	2326556	91619
Arkansas	788149	177	175	40141	35	17150	1854239	30088
Tennessee	2777716	2737	19427	52894	92	97183	8139585	177681
Kentucky	998184	95343	16097	106160	8093	303120	9877868	213954
Ohio	187991	354358	638064	695921	48207	214004	34449379	20819542
Michigan	1177	75249	472917	132650	1654	14738	7065878	1011492
Indiana	201711	45483	149740	324940	14055	72864	12781535	624564
Illinois	157433	110795	184504	446089	2997	127494	12526543	1278225
Missouri	332120	9631	23590	512527	10563	99454	7792499	202122
Iowa	6243	25093	52516	8434	420	8848	2171188	209840
Wisconsin	879	209692	79878	4823	113	32142	3633750	400283
California	1000	9912	—	17700	58055	75275	705	150
Minnesota	200	1216	515	—	—	150	1100	—
Oregon	—	—	—	1271	—	90241	211461	36980
Utah	60	1799	332	—	—	23868	83309	30998
New-Mexico	—	5	100	8231	2363	6679	111	5848
	38255811	5167213	8955945	7720862	221249	5270130	312948915	105535893

* The County of Lavaca in this state is not included in this aggregate,

States and Territories	Hay, tons	Clover seed, bushels	Other Grass Seed, bushels	Hops, lbs.	HEMP		Flax, lbs.	Flaxseed bushels
					Dew Rotted, tons	Water Rotted, tons		
Maine	755889	9097	9214	40120	—	—	17081	580
New-Hampshire	598854	829	8071	257174	—	—	7652	189
Vermont	866989	760	14996	258513	—	—	20752	939
Massachusetts	651807	1002	5085	121595	—	—	1162	72
Rhode Island	74818	1328	3708	277	—	—	85	—
Connecticut	516131	13841	16608	554	—	—	17928	703
New-York	3728797	88222	96493	2536299	1	3	940577	57963
New-Jersey	435950	28280	63051	2133	—	—	182965	16525
Pennsylvania	1842970	125030	53913	22088	282	2006	528079	41650
Delaware	30159	2525	1403	348	—	570	11050	858
Maryland	157956	15217	2561	1870	63	—	35686	2446
District of Columbia	2279	3	—	15	—	—	—	—
Virginia	369098	29727	23428	11506	90	51	999450	52318
North Carolina	145662	576	1275	9246	—	3	593796	38196
South Carolina	20925	376	30	26	—	—	333	55
Georgia	23449	132	428	261	—	72	5387	622
Florida	2510	—	2	14	—	—	50	—
Alabama	32685	138	547	276	—	70	3841	67
Mississippi	12505	84	533	473	7	—	665	26
Louisiana	25752	2	97	125	—	—	—	—
*Texas	8279	10	—	7	—	—	1048	26
Arkansas	3977	90	436	157	—	15	12291	321
Tennessee	74092	5096	9118	1032	3913	1168	367807	18905
Kentucky	113655	3230	21451	5804	40936	14756	7798123	75579
Ohio	443142	103197	37310	63731	140	50	446932	188880
Michigan	404934	16989	9785	10663	166	37	6994	1421
Indiana	403230	18329	11951	92796	341	1071	584469	36888
Illinois	601952	3427	14380	3551	142	141	160063	10765
Missouri	116743	615	4337	3130	17207	5351	520008	13641
Iowa	89055	342	2096	8242	—	—	62553	1959
Wisconsin	275662	483	342	15930	300	2	68393	1191
California	2038	—	483	—	—	—	—	—
Minnesota	2019	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon	373	4	28	8	—	—	640	—
Utah	4805	2	—	50	—	—	550	5
New-Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	12839141	467983	413154	3467514	63588	25380	13391415	562810

States and Territories	Silk Cocoons lbs. of	Maple Sugar lbs. of	Cane Sugar, hhds. of 1000 lbs	Molasses gallons	Beeswax & Honey, lbs	Value of Home-made Manufactures	Value of animals slaught'ed
Maine	252	93542	—	3167	189618	513599	1646773
New-Hampshire	4191	1294863	—	9811	117140	393455	1522873
Vermont	268	5960955	—	5997	249432	278331	1871468
Massachusetts	7	795525	—	4693	59508	205333	2500924
Rhode Island	—	28	—	4	6347	26495	667486
Connecticut	328	50796	—	665	93304	192252	2202266
New-York	1774	10357484	—	56529	1756190	1280333	13573983
New-Jersey	23	2197	—	954	156694	112781	2638552
Pennsylvania	285	2326525	—	50652	838509	749132	8219848
Delaware	—	—	—	50	41248	38121	373665
Maryland	39	47740	—	1430	74802	111821	1954800
District of Columbia	—	—	—	—	550	2075	9038
Virginia	517	1227665	—	40322	880767	2156312	7503006
North Carolina	229	27932	—	704	512289	2086522	5767866
South Carolina	123	200	671	15904	216281	909525	1302637
Georgia	813	50	1644	216150	732514	1838968	6339762
Florida	6	—	2752	352893	18971	75582	514685
Alabama	167	643	8242	83428	897021	1934120	4823485
Mississippi	2	—	388	18318	397460	1164020	3636582
Louisiana	29	255	226001	10931177	96701	139232	1458990
*Texas	22	—	7351	441638	380532	255719	1106032
Arkansas	38	9330	—	18	192338	638217	1162913
Tennessee	1923	158557	248	7223	1036572	3137710	6401765
Kentucky	1301	437345	284	40047	1156939	2456838	6469318
Ohio	1552	4588209	197	308308	804275	1712196	7439243
Michigan	8	2438987	—	19823	359232	340947	1328327
Indiana	387	2921642	—	180325	935329	1631039	6567935
Illinois	47	248904	—	8354	869444	1155902	4972286
Missouri	186	178750	—	5636	1327812	1663016	3349517
Iowa	246	78407	—	3162	321711	221292	821164
Wisconsin	—	610976	—	9874	131005	43621	920178
California	—	—	—	—	—	7000	100173
Minnesota	—	2950	—	—	80	—	2840
Oregon	—	—	—	24	—	—	164530
Utah	—	—	—	56	10	1392	67985
New-Mexico	—	—	—	4236	2	6033	82125
	14763	33980457	247778	12821574	14850627	27478931	119475020

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* The County of Lavaca in this state is not included in this aggregate.

☞ *The number of horses, cows, &c. are exclusive of those in the different cities, &c.*

COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

1.—*Statement exhibiting the value of dutiable merchandise re-exported annually, from* 1821 *to* 1851, *inclusive, and showing, also, the value re-exported from warehouses, under the act of August* 6, 1846.

Years.	Dutiable value of merchandise re-exported.	Years.	Dutiable value of merchandise re-exported.	Value re-exported from warehouses.
1821	$10,537,731	1841	4,228,181	—
1822	11,101,30	1842	4,884,454	—
1823	19,846,873	1843	3,456,572	—
1824	17,222,075	1844	3,962,508	—
1825	22,704,803	1845	5,171,731	—
1826	19,404,504	1846	5,522,577	—
1827	15,617,986	1847*.. $2,333,527	....	—
1828	13,167,339	1847†.. 2,020,380	....	—
1829	11,427,401		4,353,907	$651,170
1830	12,067,162	1848	6,576,499	2,869,941
1831	12,434,483	1849	6,625,276	3,692,363
1832	18,446,857	1850	7,376,361	5,261,291
1833	12,411,969	1851	8,551,967	5,666,706
1834	10,879,520			
1835	7,743,655	Total in 31 years,	309,644,498	18,141,471
1836	9,232,867			
1837	9,406,043	Average per annum	9,988,532	3,628,94
1838	4,466,384			
1839	5,007,698			
1840	5,805,809			

* 5 months to November 30.
† 7 months to June 30.

2.—*Statement exhibiting the value of foreign merchandise imported, re-exported, and consumed annually, from* 1821 *to* 1851, *inclusive, and also the estimated population and rate of consumption, per capita, during the same period.*

Years ending—		Value of foreign Merchandise.				
		Imported.	Re-exported.	Consumed and on hand.	Population.	Consumption per capita.
September 30	1821	$62,585,724	$21,302,488	$41,283,236	9,960,974	$4 14
	1822	83,241,541	22,286,202	60,955,339	10,283,757	5 92
	1823	77,579,267	27,543,622	50,035,645	10,606,540	4 71
	1824	80,549,007	25,337,157	55,211,850	10,929,323	5 05
	1825	96,340,075	32,590,643	63,749,432	11,252,106	5 66
	1826	84,974,477	24,539,612	60,434,865	11,574,889	5 22
	1827	79,484,068	23,403,136	56,080,932	11,897,672	4 71
	1828	88,509,824	21,595,017	66,914,807	12,220,455	5 47
	1829	74,492,527	16,658,478	57,834,049	12,543,238	4 61
	1830	70,876,920	14,387,479	56,489,441	12,866,020	4 39
	1831	103,191,124	20,033,526	83,157,598	13,286,364	6 25
	1832	101,029,266	24,039,473	76,989,793	13,706,707	5 61
	1833	108,118,311	19,822,735	88,295,576	14,127,050	6 25
	1834	126,521,332	23,312,811	103,208,521	14,547,393	7 09
	1835	149,895,742	20,504,495	129,391,247	14,967,736	8 64
	1836	189,980,035	21,746,360	168,233,675	15,388,079	10 93
	1837	140,989,217	21,854,962	119,134,255	15,808,422	7 53
	1838	113,717,404	12,452,795	101,264,609	16,228,765	6 23
	1839	162,092,132	17,494,525	144,597,607	16,649,108	8 68
	1840	107,141,519	18,190,312	88,951,207	17,069,453	5 21
	1841	127,946,177	15,499,081	112,447,096	17,612,507	6 38
	1842	100,162,087	11,721,538	88,440,549	18,155,561	4 87
9 months to June 30,	1843	64,753,799	6,552,697	58,201,102	18,698,615	3 11
Year to June 30	1844	108,435,035	11,484,867	96,950,168	19,241,670	5 03
	1845	117,254,564	15,346,830	101,907,734	19,784,725	5 15
	1846	121,691,797	11,346,623	110,345,174	20,327,780	5 42
	1847	146,545,638	8,011,158	138,534,480	20,870,835	6 60
	1848	154,998,928	21,132,315	133,866,613	21,413,890	6 25
	1849	147,857,439	13,088,865	134,768,574	21,956,945	6 13
	1850	178,138,318	14,951,808	163,186,510	23,246,301	7 01
	1851	223,419,005	21,743,293	201,675,712	24,250,000	8 31

3.—*Statement exhibiting the total value of imports, and the imports consumed in the United States, exclusive of specie, during each fiscal year, from* 1821 *to* 1851; *showing, also, the value of the domestic and foreign exports, exclusive of specie, and the tonnage employed during the same periods.*

Year.	Total imports, including specie, &c.	Imports consumed, exclusive of specie.	Domestic produce, exported, exclusive of specie.
1821	$62,585,724	$43,696,405	$43,671,894
1822	83,241,541	68,367,425	49,874,079
1823	77,579,262	51,308,936	47,155,408
1824	80,549,007	53,846,567	50,649,500
1825	96,340,075	66,395,722	66,944,745
1826	84,974,477	57,652,577	[illegible],499,855
1827	79,484,068	54,901,108	57,878,117
1828	88,509,824	66,975,475	49,976,632
1829	74,492,527	54,741,571	55,087,307
1830	70,876,920	49,575,099	58.524,878
1831	103,191,124	82,808,110	59,218,583
1832	101,029,266	75,327,688	61,726,529
1833	108,118,311	83,470,067	69,950,856
1834	126,521,332	86,973,147	80,623,662
1835	149,895,742	122,007,974	100,459 481
1836	189,980,035	158,811.392	106,570,942
1837	140,989,217	113,310,571	94,280,895
1838	113,717,404	86,552,598	95,560,880
1839	162,092,132	145,870,816	101,625,533
1840	107,141,519	86,250,335	111,660,561
1841	127,946,177	114,776,309	103,636,236
1842	100,162,087	87,996,318	91,799,242
1843*	64,753,799	37,294.129	77,686,354
1844	108,435,035	96,390,548	99,531,774
1845	117,254,564	105,599,541	98,455,330
1846	121,691,797	110,048,859	101,718,042
1847	146,545,638	116,257,595	150,574,844
1848	154,998,928	140,651,902	130,203,709
1849	147,857,439	132,565,108	131,710,081
1850	178,136,318	164,032,033	134,900,233
1851	223,419,005	207,618,003	178,620,138

Year.	Foreign merchandise exported, exclusive of specie.	Total exports, including specie, &c.	Tonnage.
1821	$10,824,429	$64,974,382	1,298,958
1822	11,504,270	72,160,281	1,324,699
1823	21,172,435	74,699,030	1,336,566
1824	18,322,605	75,986,657	1,389,163
1825	23,793,588	99,535,388	1,423,112
1826	20,440,934	77,595,322	1,534,191
1827	16,431,830	82,324,827	1,620,608
1828	14,044,608	72,264,686	1,741,392
1829	12,347,344	72,358,671	1,260,798
1830	13,145,857	73,849,508	1,191,776
1831	13,077,069	81,310,583	1,267,847
1832	19,794,074	87,176,943	1.439,450
1833	17,577,876	90,140,433	1,606,151
1834	21,636,553	104,336,973	1,758,907
1835	14,756,321	121,693,577	1,824,940
1836	17,767,762	128,663,040	1,882,103
1837	17,162,232	117,419,376	1,896,686
1838	9,417,690	108.486,616	1,995,640
1839	10,626,140	121,028,416	2,096,350
1840	12,008,371	132,085,946	2,180,764
1841	8,181,235	121,851,803	2,130,744
1842	8,078,753	104,691,534	2,092,391
1843*	5,139,335	84,346,480	2,158,603
1844	6,214,058	111,200,046	2,280,095
1845	7,584,781	114,646,606	2,417,002
1846	7,865,206	118,488,516	2,562,085
1847	6,166,754	158,648,622	2,839,046
1848	7,986,802	154,032,131	3,154,042
1849	8,641,091	145,755,820	3,334,015
1850	9,475,493	151,898,720	3,535,454
1851	10,347,121	218,433,011	3,772,439

* 9 months ending June 30.

4.—THE TRADE IN LEECHES.

Our readers who have had their blood drawn by these slimy mönsters,(and who has not?) will need no apology for the insertion of the following sketch taken from the European Correspondence of the New-York Times. As there are land sharks and water sharks, according to Shakspeare, so there are land leeches and water leeches, etc., but we have not time to draw the parallel now.

CONSTANTINOPLE, *Tuesday, June* 15, 1852.

In the present stagnation of political life at this capital, I can find time to speak rather copiously of an article of commerce, of greater importance than is usually supposed, and of which Turkey probably produces more than any other country. I refer to the Leech, which justified its claim on my attention, as having been so often used by former writers in the East, to symbolize those capacious harpies, the provincial Pashas, who, after having sucked their own fill of treasures from the people, were obliged to disgorge at the capital, for the same reason that the leech is obliged to disgorge by the apothecary, that he may the sooner be able to repeat the operation of drawing blood.

It is not more than from forty to fifty years that leeches have been in *extensive* use for the abstraction of blood from the human body, and for many years the supply from the ponds of each country was sufficient for the wants of the population. But as the use of them increased, superseding so often the lancet and cupping, the leech traders turned their attention to procuring them from foreign countries. Twenty-five years since, all who could afford it in America, used the "French" leech in preference to the American leech, because it would draw twice or thrice as much blood. But none the less a large portion of the leeches exported from France have been brought thither from other countries on the Mediterranean.

Leeches for Western Europe and America are now obtained from Morocco, Algiers, and Tunis—from Hungary, (which sends one year with another 120,000 pounds of leeches annually,) from Russia, and from Persia even. A trader brought, last winter, without hardly any loss by the perishing of the leeches, fifteen hundred pounds of leeches from the latter country. They froze solid as he was passing the lofty mountains, near Erzroom, but thawed into life again. The obstacle in bringing leeches from great distances, has been, that they were so liable to perish, and needed so much care and attention on the voyage. However great the loss, and the consequent rise in price, there seems no limit to the price that the sick are willing to pay for them. Fifty cents is often paid for a single leech in our country towns. And in Peru, in South America, leeches (brought, perhaps, from Persia) have been sold for from three to five dollars apiece.

The demand for leeches has also reached Turkey. Both for domestic and foreign use, the demand is enormous. Up to the present time, a great portion of the population has had the custom of being bled at least once in the spring. The barber of the public bath performs the operation, by scarifying, and then cupping with a horn, out of which he exhausts the air from the small end with his mouth, after the large end has been applied to the scarified part. But as the custom of the Europeans gains more and more respect with the inhabitants, and they see the avidity with which leeches are sought for in commerce, they also begin to use them sick or well. The retail price of leeches, in country towns, is one cent apiece only.

The product of the leech *fishery* in Turkey is at present annually greater than that of any other country. One reason among others, for this result, is the want of cultivation, and the amount of undrained lands in consequence on a sparsely inhabited country, and the facilities allowed to the Europeans who follow the business and have the protection of the local authorities. The product of the last three years has been about 180,000 pounds annually, worth at the place of exportation eight dollars a pound, or $1,440,000 each year. In a pound of small leeches there are from two hundred and fifty to four hundred leeches. A pound of large leeches contains half that proportion. There are probably from 50,000,000 to 60,000,000 of leeches annually exported from Turkey. They are sent chiefly to Trieste, Marseilles, and London, and some to America direct. The price varies greatly at these ports, according to the supply. The prices current of Marseilles as regularly include the price of leeches, as of wheat and wool.

The Turkish Government has for several years had the habit of farming the leech fishery to individuals. The collecting and exporting leeches for the whole Empire was farmed for the last four years to a company of four individuals for the small sum of $140,000. But the company has not been successful in sustaining inviolate the monopoly promised them by the Government. Ten years since, the Ottoman Government engaged its word that in consideration of additional duties on importation and exportation, all monopolies except those of mines and fisheries should be abolished: but it has endeavored to maintain the leech monopoly, on the ground that it was a product of the earth, or water, or both. The Legations, however, have insisted in favor of the right of all to collect and export leeches, and triumphed. And so the company of leechmen had obtained indemnity from the Government to the amount of more than one-half of their contract.

The best fishing period is in the spring. The fall months are also favorable. It is a most unhealthy pursuit, exposing the leechers continually to fevers. They are obliged to wade into the water, beat it with a stick and stir up the mud, and then they seize the leeches as they put themselves in motion, or attach themselves to their legs. A man often collects ten or twelve dozen in three or four hours. He stows them away in a bag suspended to his neck.

Leeches may be carried for short distances with safety in bags: for longer distances, they are put into vessels of water, which is frequently changed. Those destined for a long sea-voyage, as from Smyrna to New-York, are put into shallow tubs filled with wet clayey earth, several hundred in one tub. The tub is closely covered, except an aperture of ten inches square, which is closed with a piece of tin, pierced with holes to let in air. Every few days fresh water is supplied to them, and if the owner is with them, he goes over the whole mass of clay, to pick out the dead ones, that they may not corrupt the remainder. The Mediterranean steamboats have shelves in the hold, especially appropriated to this trade.

Each cocoon of leeches contains from ten to fifteen young ones, and when the cocoon bursts, the young ones sustain life by sucking the blood of their mother; and this trait in the natural history of the animal, may lead you to recur to the illustration with which I began my letter, and to find new analogies between the relations of governors and subjects in Turkey, and the unvarying instincts of the leech, that is never satisfied, but from the very beginning is crying, "Give, give."

5.—NEW-YORK CITY BANKS.

Abstract *of the quarterly reports of the seventeen incorporated Banks and twenty-four Banking Associations in the City of New-York, showing their condition on the morning of June* 26, 1852.

RESOURCES.

Loans and discounts except to directors and brokers		$72,802,007
Loans and discounts to directors		3,575,807
All other liabilities absolute or contingent of directors	$658,695	
All sums due from brokers		5,443,646
Real estate		2,708,372
Bonds and mortgages		242,361
Stocks		5,191,745
Promissory notes other than for loans and discounts		11,636
Loss and expense account		391,122
Over-drafts	$1,721	40,884
Specie		12,152,048
Cash items		11,889,613
Bills of solvent banks on hand		1,423,412
Due from solvent banks on demand		4,347,711
Due from suspended banks on demand		15,575
Add for cents		162
Total		$120,236,101

LIABILITIES.

Capital	$35,528,250
Profits	6,107,491
Notes in circulation not registered	270,124
Registered notes in circulation	7,868,106
Due Treasurer of the state of New-York	205,347
Due depositors on demand	50,110,149
Due individuals and corporations other than banks and depositors	290,064
Due banks on demand	18.160.081
Due banks on credit	1,422,684
Due to others, not included in either of the above heads	273,741
Add for cents	73
Total	$120,236,101

The charter of the City Bank expired July 1. It is now a Banking Association.

6.—WHAT IT COSTS TO GET THE COTTON CROP FROM THE PLANTATION INTO THE EUROPEAN MARKET.

A correspondent of the "Cotton Plant" is authority for the following. As an illustration of the charges on a crop before it reaches Manchester, I give you an account of sales of 100 bales in Liverpool in 1844, when the price was about what it is now:

		lbs.
100 bales of Cotton		42,000
Draughts per bale	100	
Tare 4lb. per cwt.	1,500	
		1,600
Net weight		40,400
At 4⅜ per lb.—8¾ cents		$3,535,00

Charges in U. S. and Liverpool.

Baggage, twine, mending and making	$14 50	
Wharfage $4, cartage $10, storage, $8	22 00	
Fire Insurance $3,81 postage, &c., $3,50	7 31	
Marine Insurance, 1 per cent. on $3,578 81	35 79	
Policy	1 25	
		$80 85
Dock dues £4 6d., town dues 16s. 8d.		23 32
Duty 35d. per cwt., on 360 cwt. 2 qrs. 24 lb.		252 50
Cartage, porterage, weighage, £3 14s. 1d.		17 78
Canvas, twine, and mending, £2 9s.		11 76
Warehouse rent, for 12 weeks, £5.		24 00
Postages and small charges 10s. 6d		2 52
Brokerage ½ per cent., Insurance ⅛ per cent.; 3mo. 10 days interest, discount 1¼ per cent—1⅞ on £731 9s. 2d		66 26
Freight at ½ d. per lb., on 40,400 lbs		404 00
Five per cent. primage on freight		20 20
Commission and guaranty, 3 per cent. on £736 9s. 2d.		106 05
Three months interest on cash charges $974 70		14 69
Total charges		$1,023 14 nearly ½.

7.—COMMERCE OF CHILE.

Some two or three years ago, as our volumes will show, when treating of South America, we furnished very full statistics of Chile. The annexed paper completes the subject, as we intend that all the subjects shall be completed, to date.

From the report of the late Minister of Finance, S. G. Jeronimo Urmeneta, (which is now in print, and will speedily be published,) we gather the following total result, which will be of some interest to our foreign readers.

In some of our former numbers we have published the result of the first nine months, and now being able to give the figures for the transactions of the entire year, we will compare them with those of the year 1850, so that our readers may judge the advance or retrograde movements in any of our branches of commerce or industry.

Imports to Chile for home consumption, in 1850	$11,788,193
Do. " " 1851	15,883,972
Surplus in 1851	$4,095,779
Exports of national produce from Chile in the year 1850	11,392,452
Do. " " " 1851	9,666,354
Less exports in 1851	$1,726,098

Chiefly caused by the falling of the flour and wheat on account of high prices, and a decrease in the shipments of copper and silver, on account of a scarcity of hands, caused by the political disturbances.

Exportation of duty paid on goods in 1850,	$1,033,817
Do. in 1851	2,480,037
Difference in favor of 1851	$1,446,220

This difference is principally caused by the increased trade via the Cordilleras, to the Argentine provinces.

The total amount of business transacted for Chile, (transit trade not included), amounted to $24,883,972, which amount compared with that of the year 1850, shews a surplus of $3,816,901, arising from the increase of importation on exportation.

Chile, therefore, with a population of 1,400,000 has consumed of foreign importation $11 03 per head in the year 1851, a result of which few European nations can boast of, and which is only equaled in England. The imports taken place during that period have been transmitted by twenty-six different nations.

	Imports.	Exports.		Imports.	Exports.
France	$1,705,926	$851,113			
Belgium	193,372	2,495	United States	$1,211,487	$1,447,632
Holland	402,059	65,739	California	3,362,724	2,067,606
Austria	—	1,426	New Granada	—	225,483
Prussia	—	1,016	Brazil	624,877	513,396
England	4,319,864	4,643,200	Peru	1,616,644	1,179,247
Sardinia	74,410	21,309	Bolivia	436,988	209,902
Russia	—	5,360	Sandwich Islands	58,910	59,352
			Total,	$14,029,264	$11,294,865

England occupies the first rank in our commerce with foreign nations, and the imports and exports to that country are generally equal. Next to it stands California, which we provide with agricultural produce, and import gold dust. The same relation holds Peru and Bolivia, but the figures above do not show the transit trade carried on with those countries, which we cannot ascertain, no provision having been made for it up to now in the Custom House.

The revenue of the nine ports in Chile, viz:—Valparaiso, Coquimbo, Huasco, Copiapo, Talcahuano, Constitucion, Valdivia, Santa Rosa de los Andes, has ascended to $2,724,718, an amount forming more than one-half of the entire revenue.

The following is a table of the custom-house revenue since the year 1841, which since that period has almost doubled:—

Year	Revenue	Year	Revenue
1841 produced	1,495,224	1847	$1,887,675
1842	1,842,916	1848	1,877,864
1843	1,593,755	1849	2,206,802
1844	1,629,426	1850	2,246,815
1845	1,607,928	1851	2,436,614
1846	1,873,760		

The duties forming the above revenue were exacted in 1852, under the following classification:—

Goods free of duty	$4,235,814	Specified duties	$343,710
Government monopoly	663,866	Duties at valuation	9,941,582
		Total	$15,884,972

The following is a comparative statement of the vessels arrived in the port of Valparaiso during the past ten years:—

1841 entered	623	1847 entered	897
1842 "	727	1848 "	884
1843 "	818	1849 "	977
1844 "	807	1850 "	1,529
1845 "	859	1851 "	1,565
1846 "	873		

The principal mineral and agricultural produce exported from Chile during the year 1851, in payment for the imports of foreign nations, amounted to $15,883,972, consisting of the following articles:—

Salt beef	$19,131	Flour	$1,540,358
Barley	567,406	Chile guano	55,392
Dried beef	34,854	Wool	104,299
Chocolate	17,576	Beans	166,155
Copper in bars	1,999,902	Lumber	29,795
Copper in ores	106,105	Nuts	60,305
Silver in bars	3,277,319	Wheat	147,346
Silver ores and raw silver	370,018	Gold bars	299,753
Hides	120,130	Gold ounces coined	239,602
Biscuit	129,899		
			$9,285,425
Other produce of the country too numerous to mention			380,919
		Total export	$9,666,354

The exports being three millions less than the imports, is accounted for by the importation of gold dust from California, which, during the last six months, amounted to $2,372,001.

The greater part of this amount has been remitted for balances owing from 1850; and if, therefore, we deduct this amount from the imports of 1851, the imports and exports are almost even, and the balance of Chile's trade with other nations shows even a better result than that of the United States with England.

8.—SOME FISH-Y FACTS.

All Nahant, Cape Cod, Marblehead and Nantucket are in a perfect *stew* upon the subject of fish, and Mr. Webster may expect to be hauled over the coals a good deal worse at home than he was upon his fugitive slave course, if he does not stand up to it, with all the might of that pen which swept away Hulseman like a cobweb.

We touch not the question of fish now *diplomatically*. That subject, with a great deal of interesting collateral matter, is reserved for our next. We have space only for a few statistics :—(Ed.)

It may be interesting to state, that of so much consequence did Massachusetts, as early as 1790, consider the fisheries to her foreign trade, that she had nearly $2,000,000 invested in salt works alone. She had:—

Works in number—supply fishery	80
Capital invested	$1,754,576
Persons employed	679
Bushels salt annually manufactured	503,689

Recently the assessors of each town in that state, by act of the legislature, were directed to make return to the Secretary of the Commonwealth of all the branches of the manufacturing industry of the state. The return comprehended the fisheries, and exhibited the following result for Massachusetts alone:—

	Value.	Hands employed.	Cap. invested.
Fisheries	$7,592,290	20,168	$12,484,078
Oil	2,030,321	145	1,135,500
	$9,622,611	20,313	$13,619,578

Such is the state of the Massachusetts fisheries, involving a capital of over thirteen and a half millions of dollars, and producing annually near ten million dollars worth of property! Yet we are gravely told that the Lake fisheries are of more importance to us than the whole Ocean fisheries of British America! Latest statistics on the subject show that we have, for the entire country, fishing interests at stake as follows:—

Capital invested	$27,000,000
Hands employed	40,000
Product of the fisheries	$20,000,000

On the coast of Labrador, according to the Quebec *Star*, the statistics of the fisheries for 1829, were:—

	Vessels.	Men.	Fish, Cwt.	Oil, Hhds.
United States	1,500	15,000	1,100,000	11,000
Newfoundland	400	4,000	350,000	3,500
Nova Scotia	100	800	70,000	700
England, &c.	60	4,000	240,000	2,400
Lower Canada	8	150	5,000	50
New Brunswick Magdalen Islands	20	160	8,000	80

But the more attractive feature with which we are presented in this review, is the increase of the fisheries since 1675. The annexed statement exhibits this increase:

Years.	Cod—Tons.	Mackerel—Tons.	Total—Tons.
1675	25,650	—	—
1795	30,933	—	—
1828	74,947	—	—
1840	76,035	28,629	104,304
1849	73,882	42,992	116,876

The distribution of tonnage in the Cod fisheries, in 1797 and 1848, was respectively as subjoined.

The United States, down to a recent period, was the great supplier of fish to the world. Our principal markets were the West Indies and the Mediterranean; but we also exported large quantities to other sections. Going back to 1821 we exported fish amounting to—

Dried or Smoked.			Pickled.	
Domestic	267,305	quintals.	Domestic	76,429 bbls.
Foreign	14	do	Do	4,162 kegs.
			Foreign	none.

The figures now present a totally different result. Steadily but surely has England and her American possessions been pursuing this fishing interest, until at this time, besides being a partial supplier of our own markets, they have almost superseded us in the foreign. The estimate of the value of the fish sent abroad from the ports of the two Canadas from 1840 to 1850, were $7,000,000. The exports of a single year from Halifax were $275,000. And as our trade declines, and that of rival states is augmented, a source of national wealth, national revenue, (from the duty on salt,) and national prosperity, is lost to us, or unjustly embarrassed. We have but to adduce official figures in support of the remark that our fishery trade is being gradually wrested from us. In 1790 we exported fish to the West Indies valued at $700,000. Last year our exportations of fish to the same localities did not exceed $167,000. With Europe our fishery transactions have also vacillated and declined:—

A Statement, Showing the Exports of Fish from the United States to Foreign Countries, in 1790 and 1851.

	1790.	1851.
To West Indies—value	$685,001	$166,679
To Europe, Africa, and Asia	253,554	6,376
Decline		$765,100

[*Courier and Enquirer*.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—EDITORIAL NOTE.

Having surfeited our readers during one whole volume nearly with the subject of railroads, we made up our mind to give them a resting-spell, and announced the intention. It was time to do so, for nearly all of the great points aimed at in the Review have been placed in the line of speedy and certain realization. The whole Southwest has been aroused. The great railroad to Nashville—the great railroad towards Texas—the Mobile and Ohio road—the Memphis and Little Rock road—The Jackson, Holly Springs and great Northern road, have emerged from the regions of hypotheses and conventions, and are become or are becoming fixed and tangible facts. Here are laurels enough for our people in their first industrial campaign. They will not rest here, nor will we. The harvest is indeed plentiful. May it not happen long that the laborers are few.

We have the proceedings of a great many railroad conventions, meetings, &c., a variety of reports, documents, speeches, statistics, &c., which must lay over for the present under the rule. A page or two of such material is all that we can give now.

2.—RAILROAD DESIGNS OF THE NORTH UPON THE WEST.

The following is a *northern* view of our rival neighbors, St. Louis and Cincinnati, and it embraces a good deal of food for reflection. It will be perceived that the writer lays no stress upon the *New-Orleans and Nashville Road;* indeed, he does not seem to be aware of its projection. Such a road must of course take no small share of the immense travel which he throws, *ex necessitate*, upon the St. Louis and Cincinnati roads. What he says of the *Mobile and Ohio* will apply with equal force to the *Holly Springs and Cairo* extension of the *Jackson road*, in which our Mississippi friends are now moving with a spirit that unerringly argues speedy success. Having, with Col. Walter, been the first to take the field for this road, we feel no small gratification at the results. No road was ever projected in America more important than this—none ever promised more brilliant results. It mingles the waters of the Great Lakes and the Gulf, and locks their commerce in lasting embrace. Canada becoming the twin sister of Cuba! Well may Mobile rival with us for the mastery. Have a care—have a care, men of Orleans!—vaunt not, but ACT; for the race is not always to the *swift*, nor the battle to the STRONG. Vaunt not, but ACT.

"It is no longer a matter of doubt that Cincinnati and St. Louis are to be the primary cities of the central United States—of that immense region which extends from the Appalachian to the Rocky Mountains. This taken for granted, it is very evident that the greatest thoroughfare in the West must be between those cities. Nor is this all; the greatest human movement in America, is ultimately to be in the grain-growing West, to which population is flowing, and must continue to flow, for many years. Heretofore, this region has had scarcely any railroads, and therefore no experience of what effect railways will produce in increasing the human movement. We have, however, in the United States, a very instructive experience, and one which will give a very good standard for comparison. We have the tables of railroad travel for New-England and New-York, which establish a certain ratio between the population and the number of passengers. It may be said that the population of New-England is more dense, and therefore more favorable to the increase of railway traffic. But, in fact, it is not more dense than that of Ohio; and a part of New-England (Maine and New-Hampshire) is rather thinly populated. The ratio between the number of inhabitants and the number of passengers there, is a very fair criterion for the central states now,—but will not apply to them a few years hence, when, in all probability, the population of the grain-growing states will be the densest in the Union. The following is the table of passengers, population and surface, in New-England and New-York:—

Surface, square miles............	112,290	Proportion of passengers to people..	328
Population....................	5,816,870	Proportion of passengers to surface.	170
Railway passengers............	19,123,238		

Let us now take the same elements for the states of Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, calculating the railway passengers, at the same ratio as above, to the *number of people*, which is the true criterion:—

Surface, square miles..........	235,580	Railway passengers (ratio).....	17,699,119
Population....................	5,149,932	Ratio, as above...............	3.28

To equalize these elements, we must refer to the number of miles of railroad constructed in New-England and New-York, and the number made and about to be made in the valley of the Ohio. At the time the above table was constructed, there were 4,100 miles of railway constructed in the former states. When the Ohio and Mississippi Railway shall be finished, there will be completed (with those already made) about 7,000 miles of railway in the five Western states above enumerated,—so that in that respect there will be a great advantage on the side of the latter states.

It may, therefore, be assumed as *certain*, that at the expiration of three or four years, there will be carried, on the five railways of the five states mentioned above, *eighteen millions of passengers*. How many of these will be carried on some part of the St. Louis and Cincinnati line? It appears by the report made by the Secretary of the Treasury to the Senate,—taken in connection with the railway-reports,—that the direct human movement between New-York and Boston was about 800,000, in 1851; and that the human movement between New-York and Philadelphia was something more. Looking to the indirect routes, by Albany, by sea, &c., between New-York and Boston, we may safely take one million of passengers as the number between New-York and Boston. The same ratio would give 850,000 between Cincinnati and St. Louis. But there are other circumstances which will increase the travel between Cincinnati and St. Louis, far beyond that of any of the Eastern capitals, and which have not been estimated in any previous calculations. One of these is, that the lines between Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, are *coast* lines,—they have but one side to them. Their local feeders are all from one side. But the line between St. Louis and Cincinnati is central to the West, central to the United States, and central to the Continent. In one word, it is a *bisecting* line to population, business, traffic, and country. There follows from this another consequence, which cannot happen to any coast lines: this is, that all other lines which intersect, or touch it, no matter whence they come or go, are and must be feeders to it. They may be the very best lines in themselves,—full of business,—but they must also be, to some extent, feeders to the trunk line between the great commercial marts of the central states. This is self-evident; if for no other reason, for this,—that it is obvious that the great movement on the American continent is East and West; and the most direct and convenient line, East and West, is through Cincinnati and St. Louis.

There are two other circumstances, which are to have an immense, an almost incalculable *effect* in making this the grand thoroughfare of the great central states. We have, heretofore, confined our views to these five states; but, there are feeders to this work which tend to remote regions, and embrace the states between the Ohio and the Gulf—even to the Rio Grande. The principal one of these is the Ohio and Mobile—meeting the Illinois Central at Cairo—and the Ohio and Mississippi near Salem. That railway—as appears from a recent satisfactory statement of Mr. Childs, its engineer—has means enough for its completion, and may be regarded as a certainty. By that route it is 494 miles from Mobile to Cairo; while by the river, it is 1,046. The great stream of passengers from the southwest must pass on it. There is no other line to which they can be diverted. Nor is there any other line on which they can turn to the East, till they arrive at the intersection with the Ohio and Mississippi. An inspection of the map of the United States shows, that from Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, Missouri, West Tennessee and West Kentucky, there will be but one line leading to the North, and but one way by which travelers on that line can go to the East. For that object there is, and for a long time can be, but one railway for the four principal southwestern states. In one word, when the Mobile and Ohio railroad is made, and the St. Louis and Cincinnati, that becomes at once the great, if not the only, traveled route from the Gulf of Mexico, and from west of the Mississippi to the Atlantic cities. It cannot be otherwise, because all experience has proved that *time* is the great element by which the direction of the human movement is determined. There will be a continuous railway from the Gulf of Mexico to Cincinnati, by which travellers may, if necessary, be conveyed from the Gulf of Mexico to Cincinnati in *thirty-six hours!*

There is another circumstance to be considered. The central states have now but half the density of New-England and New-York; but, in a very few years, the density will be quite as great. Then, by the course of business, and of human movement, railway passengers will be more than doubled, and instead of eighteen, we shall have *forty millions* of railway passengers—a number which now seems incredible, but which will, unquestionably, come to pass in a few years. The future of the central West cannot be calculated in numbers. In a region where every acre of land is capable of being made a garden, and where millions of the impoverished people of the earth are seeking a residence, we cannot estimate the future of human progress. We know that it will be surpassingly great, and we know that such a thoroughfare as this we have spoken of must be among the greatest in the world."

3.—A BETTER ROAD FROM THE VALLEY OF THE TENNESSEE TO THE SEABOARD THAN BY THE PRESENT GEORGIA AND CAROLINA IMPROVEMENTS.

A convention was lately held at Anderson, S. C., to take incipient measures in furtherance of this route, which has been indicated by us in previous numbers.

There were present, from Tennessee 11, from Georgia 14, from North Carolina 5, from South Carolina 72. Hon. J. B. O'Neal was unanimously elected President of the Convention.

1. "*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this Convention, it is entirely practicable to connect by railroad the valley of the Tennessee and the seaboard at Charleston at the Rabun Gap and Anderson Court-house, and that duty and interest demand a speedy completion of the work.

2. "*Resolved*, That a Committee of three be appointed by the President of this Convention, to act in conjunction with the Board of Directors of the Blue Ridge Railroad, to memorialize the Legislature of the State of South Carolina upon this subject, and to ask for a confirmation of the charter of the said company, and an extension of its chartered privileges to Anderson Court-house, and to solicit aid from the said state in the construction of the said road.

3. "*Resolved*, That a Committee of seven be appointed, in like manner, whose duty it shall be to prepare and publish a suitable Address to the people of the several states interested in the said road.

4. "*Resolved*, That the South Carolina Railroad Company and the Greenville and Columbia Railroad Company be requested to complete the surveys of the route of the road, now undertaken, and that they furnish to the committee upon the memorial, information of the surveys at as early a day as may be convenient."

Of the Committee on the memorial, Hon. T. C. Perin was appointed Chairman; on the Address, Col. J. A. Whitesides of Tennessee.

4.—RAILROAD COMPETITION OF NEW-ORLEANS WITH CHARLESTON, SAVANNAH AND MOBILE.

We have been permitted to take a copy of the subjoined admirable letter from one of the most intelligent gentlemen in Mississippi, to a citizen of this place. It abounds in views and suggestions which should arrest the attention and command the consideration of the friends of railroad enterprise in this quarter, and which are more especially worthy of the serious examination of our New-Orleans friends. We commend this letter to the attention of Mr. De Bow. There are a number of his readers in this region who would be gratified to see it given a place in the pages of his widely circulated "Review."—[Eds. Eagle and Enq.—*Memphis, Tenn.*

"I see the late Railroad Convention, which assembled at Florence, Alabama, has marked out the route of the great railway from New-Orleans to Nashville, by way of Jackson, Canton, Kosciusko and Aberdeen, Mississippi, Tuscumbia and Florence, Alabama, and Spring Hill and Franklin in Tennessee. With all due deference for superior wisdom, I must say, it seems to me the railroad is badly located for New-Orleans under existing circumstances—it is fully fifteen years behind the times in *that direction*. The object of New-Orleans is to check-mate Charleston and Savannah in the upper valleys of the Tennessee and Cumberland, and by a transverse route intercept the trade which is likely to go to Mobile. In both of which objects I think she will signally fail.

Charleston and Savannah are both geographically nearer to Nashville and the upper valley of the Tennessee and Cumberland than New-Orleans, and have already penetrated that important region with their road, now in successful operation, or will be shortly, all the way to Nashville, and which is fast turning the tide of North Alabama, Middle and East Tennessee trade into their laps. They have the same advantage of *position* as markets for Western and Southern produce, and foreign commerce, which they have always had—being on the Atlantic, the great broadway of modern civilized nations. New-Orleans is on the Gulf of Mexico, a thousand miles more distant from the great commercial countries on either side of the Atlantic, with the dangerous navigation of the Florida reefs still *intervening*. In other words, the same causes which *produced* the Charleston and Savannah railroad, and extended it to Nashville, still remains, and will continue to operate against New-Orleans with undiminished force in spite of *her* Nashville road.

She will, I think, be equally unsuccessful in her operations against Mobile. Aberdeen, the point of intersection of her Nashville road and the Mobile and Ohio railroad, is from *fifty* to *seventy-five* miles nearer to Mobile than New-Orleans, by their respective railways. And, moreover, Mobile has her own road to this same Tennessee valley now in process of construction from Salem to Gunter's Landing. Almost the only superiority which New-Orleans has over Mobile as a commercial city, is the possession of the Mississippi river and the accumulation of capital, while Mobile has the advantage of superior healthfulness of location—greater depth of water on the bar, having 20¾ feet of mean low water, while the mouth of the Mississippi has but fifteen feet—having no tonnage of vessels to pay, and being nearer to the West Indies and South America, the Atlantic cities and Europe. With these advantages will she not, when her improvements are completed, take from New-Orleans all the trade of North Alabama, Middle and East Tennessee, that is not drawn off to the Atlantic? Will not her great road to the Ohio and the lakes prove a very Chinese-wall to New-Orleans, *from the Gulf to the point of intersection with the Charleston and Memphis road*, in northeastern Mississippi? So it appears to me; and if these views be well founded, it certainly will not be to the interest of New-Orleans to extend said road further than the town of Aberdeen, *if so far*, for fear of the turn of *gravity* against her and in favor of Mobile.

But New-Orleans must have a great railroad as well as river connection with the various important points in the Mississippi valley; this, I believe, is a conceded point. The wants and spirit of the age and country demand it. And it is clear to my mind that the route already projected to Louisville, Kentucky, by the way of Jackson, Canton, Grenada and Hernando, in Mississippi, and Memphis, Trenton and Clarksville in Tennessee, is the one she should adopt and *favor with her means*. This road will accomplish for her all that can, under existing circumstances, be accomplished by the Nashville route, and more too. It will connect and afford her almost daily communication with great *commercial centres* on the Mississippi and its branches and the lakes, which the Nashville route would not, and, at the same time, develop throughout its whole extent, the wealth and resources of a great country which will always remain tributary to her, particularly if this road should be built. For it will intersect the Mobile and Ohio railroad at Trenton, and check at that remote and important point the encroachments of the city of Mobile, and thus give to New-Orleans all the benefit of a great railroad system possessed by Mobile, and having the advantage of the river besides, she will be enabled easily to maintain her commercial supremacy in the west. For, really, she has more now to fear from the encroachments of Mobile on her commerce, than the Atlantic cities, and it behooves her to turn speedily from the vain attempt to regain the outposts that have been captured, to the defence of the citadel itself, which is menaced by a potent enemy even at the gates.

Memphis, too, is deeply interested in this great road from New-Orleans to the interior cities, taking her in the route. Two magnificent railways, connecting the commercial marts of the Gulf with the Lakes and the Upper Mississippi and its tributaries, and neither passing through, nor within a hundred miles of her, must necessarily affect her prosperity very injuriously. It is certainly a matter of transcendent importance to her that such should not be the case. She ought by all means have it otherwise. It would seem to me that she is as much, or even more, interested in being on the route of the New-Orleans and Louisville road, than the Charleston road.

If these views be well founded, and I doubt not you will concur with me that they are, as you are a warm and zealous, and I beg leave to add, eloquent advocate of the proposed route by Memphis, is it not important that your city should remain silent no longer, but forthwith move on the subject, and invite the attention of New-Orleans, and the whole intermediate country, in this direction.

In order to effect that purpose, I would respectfully suggest the organization of a Railroad Association in Memphis, composed of all who are in favor of the proposed road from New-Orleans to Louisville, passing through Memphis, and that said Association open a correspondence with the city authorities and leading men of New-Orleans, setting forth the advantages and superiority of the great valley route over every other, and take such other decided steps as will likely secure her favor and co-operation, and that of the whole country interested.

You will please excuse me for troubling you with my long letter. I plead the importance of the subject and the interest I take in it as an apology.

Yours very respectfully, DAVID S. WHITE."

COL. R. TOPP, *Memphis, Tenn.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

1.—UNITED STATES STEAM MARINE—REPORT TO THE SENATE.

1.—NUMBER AND TONNAGE.	No.	Tonnage.
Atlantic coast, east of Florida Cape	465	154,270
Gulf of Mexico, from Cape Florida to Rio Grande	109	23,241
Pacific Coast	51	34,996
Mississippi River, exclusive of the Ohio Basin	253	67,957
Ohio River and Basin	348	67,601
Basin of the Northern Lakes	164	69,168
Total	1,300	416,526

This was the aggregate Steam Marine of the United States on the 1st of July, 1851, subsided into the following classes:

	No.	Tonnage.
Ocean Steamers	95	91,475
Ordinary Steamers	1,145	275,000
Propellers	119	27,974
Ferryboats	130	22,744

The *average* tonnage of steamers of different classes is as follows:

Ocean Steamers	953	tons	average.
Ordinary Steamers on the Coast	235	do.	do.
Ordinary Steamers on the Lakes	503	do.	do.
Ordinary Steamers on the Rivers	235	do.	do.
Propellers on the Coast	180	do.	do.
Propellers on the Lakes	302	do.	do.

It must be observed, however, that the average tonnage of Ocean Steamers has been increasing very rapidly the last two years, so that the average of all our Ocean Steamers is now more than 1,000 tons. Indeed, not more than one in four of our Ocean Steamers now built, is under 1,500 tons. Between the 1st of July, 1851, when the report terminated, and the present time, more than thirty Ocean Steamers (not included in the report,) have been built or finished. Of these we may mention the Pioneer, the City of Pittsburg, the Golden Gate, the James Adger, and numerous others.

The steam tonnage of the United States is now more than *double* that of Great Britain—a great many of the British steam-vessels being quite small, used only for towing. In 1834, Great Britain had less than 500 steam vessels. In 1851 she had 1184, of about 180,000 tons. The steam tonnage of the United States, as stated above, is over *four hundred thousand tons.*

The distribution of steamers in the valley of the Ohio was as follows viz.: In the district of Pittsburg, 112; of Wheeling, 46; of Cincinnati, 111; of Louisville, 61; Nashville, 18.

The distribution in the Valley of the Mississippi was as follows, viz.: District of St. Louis, 131; of Memphis, 3; Vicksburg, 6; New-Orleans, 113.

The distribution in the Basin of the Lakes was as follows, viz.: District of Burlington, 11; Plattsburg, 6; Ogdensburg, 4; Sackett's Harbor, 1; Oswego, 9; Rochester, 2; Niagara, 1; Buffalo, 42; Presque Isle, 7; Cleveland, 13; Sandusky, 1; Toledo, 4; Detroit, 47; Michilimackinack, 12; Chicago, 4.

The number on each Lake was: on Champlain, 17; Ontario, 17; Erie, 114; Straits, 12; Michigan, 14.

The distribution of steamers in the principal States of the Union was as follows: New-York, 196; Pennsylvania, 172; Ohio, 129; Missouri, 131; Louisiana, 113; Alabama, 80; Virginia, 74; Kentucky, 61; New-Jersey, 56; California, 51; Massachusetts, Connecticut and Maine, 83.

More than half the Steam Marine belongs to five States—New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Missouri and Louisiana.

2. CREWS.—The officers and crews of the steamers on the coast, were distributed as follows: Ocean steamers, 4548; Ordinary steamers, 6311; Propellers, 542; Ferryboats, 369. Average crews of the ocean steamers, 47; of ordinary steamers, 16; of Propellers, 8; of Ferry Boats, 5. The crews of each of the "Collins Line" of steamers number 135; of the Havre Line, 92, and of the Chagres Line, from 50 to 100—the "Georgia" having 112.

The officers and crews of the interior steam marine were thus: Mississippi Valley, 6114; Ohio Basin, 8338; Lake Basin, 2855.

Adding these to those given above, and we have *twenty-nine thousand and fifty-seven* as the total number of officers and crews employed in steam navigation.

3. LOSSES OF BOATS AND LIVES.—The report shows that, of the steamers of the in

terior, on the lakes and rivers, there were lost in the single year 1851, *one hundred and eighteen steamers, and six hundred and ninety-five lives!* We cannot here analyze the *causes* of these disasters—one of the most interesting things connected with this inquiry—but we may note that *one-tenth* part of the whole number of the steamers in the interior were destroyed in a single year, and that this is altogether outside the ordinary wear and tear.

Of all the steamers in the United States, one-tenth part is annually destroyed by fatal accidents, and, if this go on for ten years, there will be in that time *fourteen hundred steamers and seven thousand lives destroyed by steamboat accidents!* This is a contemplation of future evil which may well attract the attention of Government and philanthropists. Surely it is *not* necessary that thousands of lives should be destroyed by accidental burnings and explosions, caused by carelessness or ignorance, in steamers. It is not steam that causes the evil, for look at our railways, where the steam locomotive traverses thirty miles an hour, with comparatively few accidents. It is the lamentable *disregard* paid by the owners and captains of the second-rate boats to the safety of life or property.—*Cin. Gaz.*

2.—ALEXANDRIA, D. C.

[We publish this correction with great pleasure.—Ed.]

Alexandria, *July 2d*, 1852.

Dear Sir,—In looking over the pages of your very interesting Review, I was surprised, and not a little mortified, to notice a remark calculated (unintentionally of course) to injure this city in no small degree. You say, that "Alexandria, Virginia, once required fifty years for a duplication, (of its population,) but at its *present* ratio of increase it would require *four hundred years!*" I am led to believe from this statement that you are ignorant of the present condition and future prospects of our city, and that you have based your calculations on the returns of the census of 1850. Allow me to undeceive you on this point, and request that you will *repair*, as soon as may be convenient, the unintentional injury you have inflicted on us.

Let me inform you that Alexandria is now one of the most flourishing cities in the commonwealth of Virginia, and that instead of requiring *four hundred years* to duplicate her population, at her present ratio of increase she will duplicate it in six years. Under the magic influence of our railroads which connect us with the Virginia Central Railroad, (now progressing towards the Ohio river,) and the rich valley of Virginia—our population is rapidly increasing, (2,000 at least since last census,) and real estate has risen in value within the last two years fully one hundred per cent. on an average. I will give you a small example. The writer purchased a lot of ground, by no means eligibly situated, for $560. In consequence of a misunderstanding as to terms, &c., this lot of ground was resold for $500. This sale took place about eighteen months ago. Since that time the same lot has been purchased for $1,000, and *one-half* of it has recently been sold for $700 for building purposes. I could mention many cases where advances quite as great have been obtained. Everywhere around us are seen evidences of rapid improvement. A large number of houses are now in course of erection, and the demand for them continues unabated. As evidence of the fact, I enclose a communication cut from one of our papers. Rents have advanced rapidly (too much so perhaps). Water and gas works have just been erected at great cost, thus giving our citizens an abundant and cheap supply of those two necessaries of life. Light and water are greatly increasing the attractiveness of our city and the comfort of our people. The Chesapeake and Ohio Canal is pouring in upon us the exhaustless riches of the Cumberland coal region, together with an extensive and rapidly increasing flour and grain trade, and our noble Potomac is whitened with the sails of an active and prosperous commerce.* Look at our position on the map—where will you find a city with more of the elements of prosperity around her? We have long been kept down by the unwise, illiberal and unjust legislature of the general government, with whom we are unnaturally connected. But we have thrown off the mighty weight which was crushing us. With elastic energy our people have put their shoulders to the wheel, aided indeed by the liberality of our good old mother, the State of Virginia, and now our course is upward and onward; and, let me tell you, Sir, that Alexandria, *in less than four hundred years*, will be known as one of the most flourishing cities of this Union.

I am, dear Sir, with great respect,
Very truly yours,
Geo. D. Fowle.

3.—THE GRAVEYARDS AND CEMETERIES OF NEW-ORLEANS—MORTALITY, ETC.†

By the general custom of mankind—one not only in accordance with good taste, but with sanitary requirements—the dead are consigned to the ground—"earth to earth;" but in New-Orleans a different method of sepulture prevails. In most of the cemeteries, interment in the ground is wholly interdicted, elevated vaults and tombs only being used. The necessity of this method of entombment, for all who can afford the expense, is easily explained by referring to the topography of the city. A grave in any of the cemeteries is lower than the adjacent swamps, and from ten to fifteen feet lower than the level of the river, so that it fills speedily with water, requiring to be bailed out before it is fit to receive the coffin, while during heavy rains it is subject to complete inundation. The great Bayou Cemetery is sometimes so completely inundated that inhumation becomes impossible until after the subsidence of the water; the dead bodies accumulating in the meanwhile. I have watched the bailing out of the grave, the floating of the coffin, and have heard the friends of the deceased deplore this mode of interment. A young Irish woman, on seeing her husband's coffin lowered into a grave of welling water, exclaimed repeatedly: "Oh, Mike, it is a dear burying to you to be buried at the Bayou! Oh that you should come to this!" It is this feeling that has built the different cemeteries which constitute the great necropolis of New-Orleans. Interest, to say nothing of the vanity of friends, requires inscriptions to identify a vault, which is private property, purchased under a written title or conveyance. Hence, these monumental inscriptions, from their constancy, accuracy, and number, afford data which, in the absence of exact registries, are probably more trustworthy and valuable than can be found in any other existing necropolis. These necrological monuments will augment from generation to generation, and must hereafter prove more useful to the vital historian than the pyramids of Egypt, or the countless millions so carefully embalmed and deposited in the catacombs of that country, forty centuries ago. The ethnologist might even now commence his lesson among the tombs. The Caucasian is separated from the negro race. In some cemeteries the Irish, in some the German, in some the Anglo-American, in some the French type predominates.

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* Ships of the largest class load at our wharves.

† By Dr. Dowler, of New-Orleans.

The monumental evidence to be offered in this tableau, in relation to the salubrity of the city and the length of life, compared with other places, is doubtlessly imperfect. The principal objection to which it is liable, appears to be this; namely, very young children may not have had inscriptions on their vaults, as constantly as adults; though this hypothesis may be incorrect. But admitting that it is true, this source of error is neutralized, it may be supposed, by an undeniable fact, that in all these cemeteries, even those which reflect the creole life most truly, as the Catholic, strangers, victims to the climate, who "lived not half their days," are buried, and being counted, tend to shorten the average life probably as much as the supposed omission of infantile inscriptions tend to enhance it. The evidence, upon the whole, if not demonstrative, possesses probability, and is offered for what it is worth, in the absence of more exact data.

In the following enumerations, fractional parts of a year are reckoned as one year when they exceed six months, or fall short of eighteen months, and so of all fractions in more advanced ages. In all cases it was deemed necessary, in recording a series of ages, not to reject any because they were short, nor to seek any because they were long. Thus, on one occasion, having completed the series for the time and the place, I came immediately to an inscription upon a well known negress, aged 107 years and 5 months, born in 1732, died in 1839, but the rule adopted excluded this, as well as other similar cases. In Lafayette Cemetery, as the sexton informed me, there is a negress slave buried aged 110. A similar age was found in the Catholic cemetery, after having finished the series. But all these were omitted.

The old Catholic cemetery, (No. 1, Basin street,) in which nearly all the inscriptions are French—13 only were distributed among all other languages—gave the following results, after having made 136 observations:

The first series of		30	observations	gave an	aggregate of	1,474	years.
The second	"	30	"	"	"	1,512	"
The third	"	30	"	"	"	1,381	"
The fourth	"	30	"	"	"	1,313	"
The fifth	"	16	"	"	"	852	"
Total observations,		136			Total ages,	6,537	

mean life 48 years and a fraction: more than 21 years over the mean of the Hebrew cemetery—20½ over that of the Bayou; 17½ over that of the Protestant; 27¾ over that of Lafayette city; 12 over that of all France—nearly 20 over that of the department of the Seine, (Paris)—and about 22 years beyond the mean of that old Protestant cemetery immediately adjacent. The following table shows the mean age, with the three oldest persons in each series, in this cemetery:

Series.	Mean Age.	Three oldest in each Series.			Mean Age of three oldest.
1st series	49·01	81	80	76	79
2d "	50·56	76	76	74	75·33
3d "	46·03	85	80	78	81
4th "	43·76	85	81	72	79·33
5th "	53·25	92	90	90	90·66

Although the place of nativity is not always mentioned in these inscriptions, yet out of Louisiana the United States furnished but 1, and Ireland but 1, France 19, and Spain, Genoa, and St. Domingo, each 4. The prevailing type, in this cemetery, is doubtlessly the creole French.

The old Protestant cemetery, (adjoining the Catholic cemetery on Basin street,) long abandoned as a place of burial, gave for 30 inscriptions an aggregate of 797 years, and a mean life of nearly 26½ years—the three oldest 62, 60, 47.

The new, and by far the most extensive of the Catholic cemeteries, is that in the rear of the former, consisting of four squares, between Robertson and Claiborne streets, the southern portion of which is for the colored race. In this cemetery, especially in its northern portion, French inscriptions preponderate. The white race, in 80 observations, afforded the following results: The first 30 gave an aggregate of 1,296, and a mean of 42·2 years—the 3 oldest 89, 77, and 74; the second 30 gave a total of 1,415; a mean of 47·16; the 3 oldest 80, 75, and 72; the residue 20 observations gave a total of 997; a mean of 49·85 years; the 3 oldest 93, 80, and 75.

The aggregate of these observations amount to 3,678 years, giving a mean age of nearly 46. (After counting these 80, one was found aged 110, though I could not count it consistently with my plan, which rejected the principle of selection.) In the middle division of this cemetery, 30 inscriptions gave an average life of nearly 47¼ years.

By uniting these divisions of the Catholic cemetery No. 2 with that on Basin street, the observations will amount to 396—the aggregate 18,607 years, and the mean life of the whole, both of the whites and blacks, will be very nearly 47 years.

Of these 396 inscriptions, 49 were over 70; 13 were over 80, 5 over 90.

The black race in this cemetery, buried in a style of magnificence nearly equal to the white, has usually French inscriptions, indicating as the principal places of nativity, Louisiana, St. Domingo, Cuba, Jamaica, and Africa, and gave, in 150 observations, the results which the following table expresses with the utmost brevity: there may be some error in the third series—a discrepancy there seems to be, inasmuch as this series gives a comparatively diminished total and mean life.

Series thirty Obs. each.	Aggregate Ages of each Series.	Mean Ages of each Series.	Three oldest in each Series.		
1st series	1,594	53·13	100	85	80
2d "	1,364	45·46	64	80	75
3d "	1,102	37·4	95	82	70
4th "	1,318	43·93	100	83	79
5th "	1,585	52·0	100	92	90

Total ages of 150 6,969

Mean age of 150 persons 46·43 years.

The united ages of the fifteen oldest persons in this enumeration amount to 1,398 years, affording an average life far beyond "threescore and ten," (the limit indicated by the royal poet of the Hebrews,) namely, 86¼ years, with two centenarians for every hundred; or as many of that age as France affords in about half a million. Probably the entire number of vaults and tombs in the African cemetery does not exceed two thousand, nor the dead bodies exceed three thousand. Now, on the supposition that by some strange and incredible chance, the one hundred and fifty inscriptions I took note of, actually exhausted the whole number of centenarians, (which I know was not true,) still the colored centenarians transcend French centenarians two hundred and fifty times.

It will be seen that the black race affords, by these tables, 1 in 50, aged 100 years; and if we add 11 years to the lives of the remaining two oldest in the 150 enumerated, the result will be, five centenarians: or 1 in 30; or 8,333 times more than the ratio for all France; or 2,100 more than that of England, by the census of 1841; or if we take the official amount of the deaths in France for the 15 years ending on the first of January, 1832, it will be found that 150 inscriptions give, for the black race in New-Orleans, nearly one-fifth as many centenarians, as 11,793,289, or near twelve millions of deaths among the French. But, by an exact calculation, the French bills of mortality, as above mentioned, give one aged one hundred in every 471,731; the black one in fifty.

Each of the remaining cemeteries of New-Orleans, as they contain a greater proportion of strangers, will be found to offer a rapid decrement in the mean life. The new and extensive Protestant cemetery of the Second Municipality gave, in the first 30 observations, as the three oldest, 73, 42, 40; the second 30 gave, for the three oldest, 78, 69, 66. From 110 observations, a mean life was obtained of 30 3-4 years. The Hebrew cemetery gave, as the three oldest, 74, 63, 62, and an average of 27 years.

The Bayou Cemetery, or Potter's Field, not having monumental inscriptions, with few exceptions, proved an unsuitable field for necrological researches. From the rude and frail memorials of the dead, I obtained thirty-five ages: the oldest three were, 55, 52, 46—the mean life of the whole, 27 3-4 years—a mean nearly twenty years less than that of the old Catholic and the African cemeteries.

The city of Lafayette, separated from New-Orleans by a street only, abounds with German immigrants, who, with the Irish, are in both cities the principal victims of the yellow fever. The Lafayette cemetery is more favorable for inhumation in the ground than the New-Orleans cemeteries; accordingly, this mode of sepulture is more common in the former. Among 30 ages taken from the vaults of that cemetery, 39 was the oldest, and the mean of the whole was only 20 3-4 years, which is the minimum of all the cemeteries, being 26 years less than that of the black race in the Catholic cemetery, and nearly two and a half times less than that on Basin-street.

The Catholic cemeteries are supposed to reflect the creole life more accurately than the other cemeteries, which are newer, and have been filled with immigrants. The mean life, as deduced from monumental evidence, though not identical with that deduced from the recent mortality of the city, by the Board, is confirmed by the latter; that is to say, the Catholic cemeteries take precedence of the Protestant, and the Protestant of the Potter's Field. Any one acquainted with the different classes of the population would have anticipated these results.

A closer inspection of the city of the dead may not be inappropriate, but suggestive as

"To what base uses we may return, Horatio!"—HAMLET.

A vault is eight feet in its horizontal direction, 25 inches high, and 17 wide. Tombs are greatly varied in size. Of late years, wood has not formed a component part of vaults and tombs. The old Catholic and the old Protestant cemeteries have, in consequence of the wood in their structure, in many instances gone completely to decay.

Mahogany, and some other kinds of coffins, usually decay in two years, while cypress remains sound many years, varying, of course, according to the humidity, etc.

The body is completely decomposed, the bones separated, and the offensive gases dissipated in about three months, in the hot season, and in six months in winter. I have found that the bones of the young and old would frequently crumble into dust, from a slight pressure, after an entombment of from 30 to 40 years. The sexton of one of the Catholic cemeteries, on opening a vault in the upper range, to remove a body long buried, found the corpse completely desiccated—no putrefaction had taken place; the hair and whiskers were firmly fixed, and natural in appearance; the face was little changed, and the eyes, though greatly dried up, remained. In temperate climates, corpses buried in the ground require, probably, four years, at least, for decomposition, except the bones, which may last for indefinite periods.

The perishable structures constituting the necropolis of New-Orleans, and the speedy dilapidations which take place among them, often exposing the bones of the dead, cannot but inspire melancholy thoughts, such as Goethe puts in the mouth of Faust: "Instead of animated nature, for which God made man, thou hast naught around thee but skeletons and dead men's bones, in smoke and mould. * * * Must I go on reading in a thousand books, that men have everywhere been miserable, that now and then there has been a happy one? Thou hollow skull, what mean'st thou by that grin? but that thy brain, like mine, was once bewildered—sought the bright day, and, with an ardent desire after truth, went miserably astray in the twilight?"

A few specimens of the literature of the tombs, mostly quotations, will be given:

"'——There is not an hour
Of day, or dreaming night, but I am with thee;
There's not a breeze but whispers of thy name,
And not a flower that sleeps beneath the moon,
But in its hues and fragance tells a tale of thee,'
Poor Caroline!
Only 28!
Dearly loved, and deeply mourned, by one faithful heart."

"Far from friends and home his dust mingles with strangers."

"Mother! sweet mother! thou can'st never know,
That yearly thus I deck thy mossy bed,
With the first roses of spring that blow,
And tears of fond affection shed."

"He was all in all to a disconsolate wife, a devoted daughter, and three little children."

"Alex. Milne,
The Orphan's Friend."

"Aged 21. Such has been her fate!"

"Victime de l'honneur!"

"For you, dear children, we will weep,
Until we join in your long sleep."

Lord Byron maintained that the following epitaph, at Bologna, is the best he had ever seen:

"M. L. *Implora pace.*"

He says, "I have never met with any epitaph, ancient or modern, that pleased me a tenth part as much. Can anything be more full of pathos? These few words say all that can be said or ought; the dead had had enough of life; all they wanted was rest; and this they *implore*. There is all the helplessness and humble hope, and death-like prayer, that can arise from the grave—*Implora pace.*"

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

VARDRY McBEE, of South Carolina,

With some Notes upon the Progress of Greenville and the Upper Districts of South Carolina, in Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements, and the Portraiture of what may be called a Model Man of Enterprise for the South and the Country.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 22.

Vardry McBee was born a British subject, in Spartanburgh District, South Carolina, June 19th, 1775, and not more than 50 or 60 miles from the birthplace of General Andrew Jackson. The struggle for American Independence had, however, commenced, and before it was over, the subject of our memoir was old enough to see and remember many of its thrilling incidents. The "Battle of the Cowpens" was fought within a few miles of his father's house, and he remembers hearing the firing of the guns, and seeing the American cavalry in pursuit of Col. Tarleton and the British troops after their defeat. The "Battle of the Cedar Springs" was also fought within a few miles of his nativity. He remembers three of General Clark's wounded soldiers being brought to his father's, bloody and almost lifeless, carried in front of three horsemen, and hanging across the pommels of their saddles. One of them proved to be Gen. Clark's brother. He was kindly nursed by the family, and afterwards married one of Mr. McBee's sisters.

The parents of Mr. McBee came from Virginia, and were amongst the earliest settlers of the upper part of South Carolina. They were of highly respectable families, and belonged to the Society of "Friends."

But when his country became involved in war for her freedom and independence, he threw aside the Quaker, like Gen. Greene, and became a soldier of the American army. He was elected to the command of a company of militia, and for several years was in the active service of his country. After the fall of Charleston and the surrender of the state to Lord Cornwallis, Capt. McBee retired into North Carolina and there joined the "Over Mountain Men." When the times became better he returned, and succeeded in capturing a Tory fort three miles from his house. At the close of the American Revolution, Capt. McBee, like hundreds of others, found himself greatly embarrassed, and had to mortgage his lands, including the present beautiful seat of learning, and former fashionable watering place, known as the "Limestone Springs." He was fond of social company, and confiding in his nature, with habits not improved by his military life. The consequence was, his utter ruin in fortune, and the foreclosure of his mortgages. This left him without the means of educating his children. Vardry was taken from school at 12 years old, and placed on the farm to assist in raising limestone and making lime. His education was of course very imperfect. From the age of twelve till he was eighteen, Vardry McBee worked as a laborer on the "Limestone Farm," where his father continued to reside, though it had been transferred to Francis Bremar, of Charleston. In 1794 he determined to go to Lincolnton, North Carolina, and there learn to be a saddle maker, under the direction of his brother-in-law, Joseph Morris. In those times, the trade of a saddler seems to have held out strong inducements to the enterprising young men of that region of country. It is well known that General Andrew Jackson worked one or two years at this business, with a Mr. White, at the "Waxhaws," before he commenced his legal studies in North Carolina. When his apprenticeship at the saddler's trade had expired, Mr. McBee thought he would seek his fortune in Charleston as a clerk in some store. Accordingly in the spring of 1800 he visited that city, in company with Gen. Moore. It was at a time when business was dull, and no employment in a dry goods establishment could be obtained.

He accepted a situation in a retail grocery. He returned to Lincolnton in time to hear an eulogy or oration on the death of Gen. Washington.

In the fall of 1800, instead of returning to Charleston, he accompanied his parents in their removal to Kentucky. The next spring he went to Middle Tennessee, where he established a saddlery. He attended whilst there a public meeting near the "Hermitage," at which Gen. Jackson presided and Gov. Claiborne acted as Vice-President. The object of the meeting was to commemorate the victory obtained by the "Republican Party" over the Federalists. on the election of Mr. Jefferson to the Presidency of the United States. There were no speeches made, says Mr. McBee. at this meeting. but toasts drank. Whilst in Tennessee Mr. McBee was solicited by Mr. James Campbell, of Charleston. to return to Lincolnton and open there a store in co-partnership with him. This he did, and on commencing business, made it a rule. from which he has never yet departed, to keep for sale no articles manufactured by his customers, unless purchased from them. In this way he has always endeavored to encourage "home industry," as a merchant as well as a manufacturer. If every one would act on this rule we might yet see the South independent of the North, and it would greatly promote the wealth and prosperity of our country.

In 1804 he was married to Miss Jane Alexander, daughter of Col. Elias Alexander, of Rutherford county. North Carolina. Through a long life, this most exemplary lady has shown the wisdom of his choice, and has contributed much by her care, prudence, and industry, towards the acquisition of that large fortune with which he is now blessed. She still survives to enjoy the respect and esteem of all who know her. In 1805, Mr. McBee discontinued his mercantile business, and invested his funds in a farm, and house and lot in the village of Lincolnton, and kept private entertainment for many years. He now began to read with renewed energy, and improve his mind. The subject of agriculture was his favorite study. and very few farmers in the United States excel him in that noblest of all branches of human industry. His lands when purchased were very much worn, and he determined to reclaim them. This he did most successfully, and at the same time making fine crops. He carried off the premiums for the greatest product of lands at all their agricultural exhibitions. Col. Wade Hampton, a few years since, after riding over Mr. McBee's corn fields, near the village of Greenville, declared him to be the neatest agriculturist he had ever seen. His corn fields, and his whole farm, usually present the fine culture of a large garden. He pays great attention to the various grasses, and has shown that the climate of the western part of South Carolina is well adapted to the growth of clover, lucerne and orchard grass.

Notwithstanding Mr. McBee's neatness as a farmer, and his great success in producing heavy crops of corn, &c., there are very few persons who bestow less labor on the cultivation of their crops. He seldom plows his corn more than twice. To each row he gives two furrows at different and proper times, so that the plowman during the whole summer is only in each row as often as an ordinary farmer is at every plowing. Mr. McBee is very careful to protect his manure from the weather, and apply it judiciously. He never permits a wash to be made in his fields. and as soon as he sees a gully forming. it is stopped. This he will sometimes do by planting a fruit tree in the wash. In 1812 he was elected clerk of the County Court of Lincoln, which office he held for 21 years, and like Sir Walter Scott, who was also the clerk of a court for about the same length of time, he discharged the duties of his office himself. and to the entire satisfaction of the community. Whilst clerk of the court he continued his business as a saddler, and still owns an establishment of that character. The purchase of a large domain, including several thousand acres of land in and around the beautiful, romantic and picturesque village of Greenville. South Carolina, was made by Mr. McBee in 1815. For this, *now* princely estate, he paid only $27.500. A portion of this land, which cost him only two or three dollars per acre. he has sold for one, two, and three hundred dollars per acre! The purchase was made of Col. Lemuel J. Allston, who for several years represented Greenville and Pendleton Districts in the Congress of the United States. He had improved his lands and residence with great taste, for the times. but becoming dissatisfied with his situation and infatuated with the opening prospects of the West, he determined to sell out his possessions in South Carolina, and move to Mississippi. Mr. McBee was then a resident of North Carolina. and not worth more than twenty or thirty thousand dollars. His friends and relations remonstrated with him against this purchase in very strong terms, and told him plainly that he could not meet the payments, and that it would be his utter ruin. But Mr. McBee had made his calculations and knew better. He was then in possession of an income of about $3,000, and had several years to make the payments. There were several gentlemen of fortune and enterprise in and about Greenville who ought to have made this purchase, but they did not have the sagacity to look so far ahead as Mr. McBee, or see as he did, the future prospects of this mountain village. It was then composed of a few houses, and perhaps a hundred inhabitants. But Mr. McBee saw that it lay in the great thoroughfare to the West, that it possessed health and climate and mountain scenery which must in time attract visitors during the summer season, from the lower parts of Carolina and Georgia. He saw likewise that it possessed water power equal to almost any machinery, which would one day be immensely valuable. Greenville has been termed, not inappropriately, the Switzerland of Carolina. It was ceded by the Cherokee Indians in their treaty of 1777 to the State of South Carolina. An Indian trader by the name of Paris had settled where the village now stands, and had erected a little corn mill where the fine merchant mills of Mr. McBee now are. Paris had taken out a grant of ten miles square, including his improvements, but before it was perfected by the British government, the Colonies declared their independence, and South Carolina purchased the Indian title to these lands. Paris was a royalist, and his claims were not recognized. The District of Greenville is rapidly becoming a manufacturing district. There are some seven or eight cotton factories, two or three paper mills, several carriage factories, two or three gun factories, and a variety of other machinery, with fine mills dotting the district all over. The village has a commanding view of the mountains, which form a semicircle around it ; and its vicinity affords more pretty situations for residences than almost any other spot in the world. Its beauties have been appreciated by many of our most distinguished men, who have made it the place of their residence. Amongst them we may name Gov. Joseph Allston, the son-in-law of Aaron Burr, Gov. Henry Middleton, for many years the American minister to Russia, the Hon. Joel R. Poinsett, minister to Mexico and Secretary of War under the administration of Mr. Van Buren, Chancellor Thompson, Judge Gantt, Judge Earle, Judge O'Neall, and the Hon. Waddy Thompson, minister to Mexico under the administration of Mr. Tyler.

In 1817 Mr. McBee built a very superior flour mill in the village, and in 1829 added another one built of stone. These mills have a high reputation, and are patronized by all the surrounding districts, and a portion of North Carolina. On the same beautiful stream, the Reedy River, about seven miles below the village of Greenville, Mr. McBee has erected another fine mill. He has also built at that place a superior paper mill, from which he supplies with paper a great many of the newspaper presses in South Carolina, Georgia and North Carolina. He also makes writing paper of a very superior quality, and a fine quality of wrapping paper. Connected with his paper mill and grist mill is an extensive cotton factory, and also a woolen factory. These factories weave and spin a great variety of cloths and yarns. He occasionally sends some of the products of his mills to New-York, and is able to sell them at a handsome profit.

In 1833 Mr. McBee was appointed a delegate to an Internal Improvement Convention, which assembled at Raleigh, North Carolina. This convention consisted of one hundred and fifty members, and embodied most of the talent of the state. Mr. McBee was appointed on the select committee to prepare business, consisting of Judge Strange, Governor Branch, Gov. Dudley, Gov. Burton, Judge Cameron, and Gen. Polk, and was Secretary of the committee. Mr. McBee moved to Greenville, South Carolina, in 1836. The situation of his property in South Carolina, and its great value, made his return to his native state absolutely necessary. Though born in South Carolina, his place of birth, the Limestone Springs, was supposed to be, at that time, in North Carolina. Many grants were taken out for lands in Spartanburg, York and Greenville, under the authority of North Carolina, and are still held by those grants. Some of them have lately been exhibited in the courts of South Carolina, and their validity acknowledged. After his removal to Greenville, Mr. McBee devoted himself very much to the improvement of his lands and his agricultural pursuits. He was elected President of the Agricultural Society, and had awarded to him several years the premium for the best managed farm in the district. He also took premiums regularly for his stock, and the greatest product of grain. His farm adjoining the village has been in cultivation sixty or seventy years. By manuring his whole crop every year, which he does, his lands have been made productive. His maxim is the English rule—never to injure land, but always try to make it better. The American notion of clearing and wearing out lands, and moving to a new country, is abhorrent to Mr. McBee's feelings and good sense. He seldom clears any lands, but always manures.

When the project of the Louisville and Cincinnati Rail-road was on the tapis in South Carolina, Mr. McBee subscribed liberally to it, and on the death of General Hayne, who had been elected the first President of the company, Mr. McBee, without any solicitation on his part, or on the part of his friends, was elected to preside over the company, with a salary of three or four thousand dollars. In order to discharge the duties of his office he had to spend the greater part of his time in Charleston. Whilst there, two of his relations in Greenville, who had been connected in business with him, but in whose affairs at that time he had no interest, failed, and involved him in a heavy litigation. Attempts were made by many of the most influential men in the district to make him responsible for the debts due them by Messrs. Alexander and Henning. In consequence of these lawsuits, and knowing that his friend Col. Gadsden would be elected to succeed him, he resigned the Presidency of the Rail-road. These lawsuits were a good while in court, and gave Mr. McBee much trouble. On his return from Charleston to attend to them, he said to his counsel, "I have so acted through life, that there is not a fact or circumstance which my enemies can produce against me, to affect my character in a court of justice." The result of these trials did show most conclusively the truth of this remark. Mr. McBee has at all times manifested liberality and public spirit in every improvement of the country. When it was proposed to build a male and female academy in the village of Greenville, although not then a citizen of the state, he gave lands worth several thousand dollars for the use of these schools. He made similar donations for the sites of the Baptist Church, the Episcopal Church, the Methodist Church, and the Presbyterian Church—all in the village of Greenville. But the crowning act of his life in this respect was his subscription of Fifty Thousand Dollars to the Greenville and Columbia Rail-road. This great public enterprise was about to fail, and the citizens of Greenville appealed to Mr. McBee to come forward and save it. He did so, by making the largest individual subscription ever made to a Rail-road in the United States. The work is now going prosperously on, and in the course of the year 1853, Greenville will be connected with Charleston by a Rail-road.

Mr. McBee has never used his wealth as an usurer, or broker. He has always employed it in the support of honest and industrious mechanics, and others laboring for a livelihood. Instead of hoarding up his money, and lending it out at interest, or investing it in bank stock, he has employed it in the improvement of the country, and in the support of the poor and needy. To mechanics for their labor alone, he has paid in the course of his life near two hundred thousand dollars. How many hundreds and thousands have thus been furnished with bread! At this time there are several hundred poor persons supported by him for their labor, in his factories and mills, or in some other employment under him.

In morality, and all the proprieties of life, Mr. McBee has no superior. His habits are all strictly temperate and methodical. He is a man of great industry and activity of life. He retires to bed early, and rises before daylight every morning. He breakfasts very early, and then employs himself in riding and superintending his business till dinner. Having been crippled whilst a young man, by being thrown from his horse, he is not able to walk any distance. He consequently lives mostly in his saddle during the day. Although now nearly seventy-seven years old, he rides fifty miles a day, and feels no inconvenience from it! He enjoys fine health, though his constitution has always been delicate. There is the same uniformity and regularity in his dress that there is in his habits and manners. His dress is a drab coat and light vest and pantaloons. In person, Mr. McBee is small, with a mild and pleasing expression of face. In his manners, he is kind and gentle, with the simplicity of a child. Seldom is he excited by any thing, but there is in him a sleeping passion, which is sometimes roused.

In 1847 Mr. McBee made a visit to the northern states, for the purpose of obtaining information in regard to Rail-roads. He had been appointed a delegate to the Rail-road Convention in Columbia, and went on from there after the adjournment of the Convention.

Whilst at the north, he was induced to subscribe ($10,000) Ten Thousand Dollars to the Seaboard and Roanoke Rail-road. In order to encourage the Charleston, Louisville and Cincinnati Rail-road, he had taken fifteen or twenty thousand dollars in that road. He took twelve thousand dollars of stock in the

Greenville and Columbia Rail-road, and afterwards increased it to fifty thousand dollars, as has been already mentioned. It may with great truth be said of Mr. McBee, that very few men who have made their fortunes have appropriated so much of them to public purposes, and to the support of honest industry, to the improvement of their country in her agriculture, manufactures, schools, houses, and public buildings, rail-roads, &c. It may with equal truth be said, that Mr. McBee never engaged in an enterprise that did not succeed. As a saddler he commenced his fortune, had a high reputation for his work, and laid the foundation of that immense estate which he now owns! As a merchant, with numerous branches of his mercantile business at Lincolnton, Spartanburg, Greenville, and elsewhere, during some fifty years, he has been everywhere successful! As an extensive manufacturer of cotton and woolen cloths and paper, he has been equally successful. All this success he has seemingly accomplished without an effort on his part. When he subscribed largely to the Charleston Rail-road, every one thought his stock would be of little or no value. But it now pays him seven per cent. The state of South Carolina issued some years ago a six per cent. stock which Mr. McBee, as President of the Rail-road, endeavored to induce the company to take for certain purposes. They declined, and he took several thousand dollars of it himself. This stock was soon worth a premium of ten per cent.! There are some men whose judgment seems unerring, and who have an intuitive notion of success. Vardry McBee is one of that class, and like all truly great men, is without pride, ostentation, or pretension. Such men are generally successful, whilst their opposites are almost invariably wanting in success.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—SOUTHERN DIRECT TRADE.

Now that this subject is again receiving the attention at the South which it deserves, and is about to be brought before the Planters' Convention in Macon, Georgia, in October, and the Merchants' Convention, Baltimore, in December, we cannot refrain from inserting the following apposite remarks from Mr. Bayler, who has taken the lead in the matter:

"The absolute necessity of the success of this cause at the South, has long become a fixed impression upon the public mind. The evils of the present system, and its inevitable results, have awakened apprehensions of the deepest character in the Southern breast. The mighty torrent which is sweeping over us, with as desolating an effect as the English commerce in India, has been met by the friends of Southern prosperity, heretofore, without success. They have been overborne by the surges of the resistless torrent, and instead of doing good have formed examples to retard others. The onward march, however, of the commercial power of the North, and England at the South, and the concentration of our trade, money and power at Liverpool and New-York, has once again aroused the attention of the South, and she is again in an attitude of revolt against the 'Government of Trade,' now termed omnipotent. In this critical juncture, before despairing, or adopting rash modes of resistance, it is well that our course should be marked by common sense, caution, but firmness.

"One thing is evident, *that unless something is done* the *future* of the South will be that of Ireland. She must inevitably become a mere province to sustain the commercial and manufacturing cupidity of others.

"The South loses annually on her *exports* from 15 to 20 per cent. of their value, *in unnecessary charges and expenses.* (The per cent. naturally incident to a regular and properly organized trade is not included.) She pays on her imports from 20 to 100 per cent. enhanced valuation, (the consequence of a circuitous transportation.) Without going into detail, it is sufficient to state, that though her productions are of the very richest character, *with cheap slave labor*, yet her *annual expenses* are very nearly equal to the value of her produce, leaving it a very uncertain question whether, in a series of years, she is acquiring capital or becoming involved in debt. With a balance of produce (in original value) in her favor, the balance of trade (indicated by exchange) is *against her*.

2.—ALABAMA DIRECT TRADE COMPANY.

We are favored by J. B. Gladney, Esq., with a copy of the charter of the company, and with the report upon its general objects, which was made in the Legislature of Alabama, and which has been published in one of the numbers of the Cotton Plant. We are firmly convinced of the propriety of the South's trading on her own account. All middle-men—like tariffs and restrictions, are *pro tanto* obstacles to trade. They are bridges, and often very dilapidated ones, over which produce must pass to the consumer. Why bridges at all, when the current is not ankle deep? Why New-York and Liverpool, when we can have Rotterdam at once? Why this "pent up Utica," when the whole *continent* is ours? Mr. Gladney says:

"The General Assembly of the State of Alabama, at its late session, passed an act incorporating the Alabama Direct Trade and Exchange Company, limiting the capital to three millions of dollars; and also passed a supplementary act which entirely removes the three millions limit, and allowing the company to receive subscriptions to their capital stock, to any extent that may be found necessary to carry out the objects of their charter; each of which acts passed both houses of the legislature unanimously, after having had the most thorough investigation. The obvious policy of the Company is to apportion the capital stock amongst the different states and territories, to persons of all occupations, according to exchangeable productions."

3.—UNITED STATES MAIL STEAMERS.

We thank General Rusk, of Texas, for a copy of his very laborious and able report upon the subject. There is much in it that we would extract; in fact we must do it hereafter. Such documents have a national interest. General Rusk is an advocate for Southern steamers to Europe—to South America, and to Mexico. His report is strongly in their favor, and in giving his aid to the Collins' steamers he distinctly announces the condition that the South is to receive equal favor in her enterprises of the same sort. But is she prepared to enter upon any, and can promises of the kind be relied upon from the North? At least, we shall see.

The United States mail steamship lines in operation on the 1st of March, 1852; the names of the several steamers, where employed, their tonnage respectively, and the date of their being first placed in service.

Name.	Register tonnage. Tons.	95ths.	Date of commencement.
*Washington	1,641	00	June, 1847.
*Hermann	1.784	00	March, 1848.
†Franklin	2.184	00	October. 1850.
†Humboldt	2,181	00	May, 1851.
‡Atlantic	2,845	66	April. 1850.
‡Pacific	2,707	10	May, 1850.
‡Arctic	2,856	75	October. 1850.
‡Baltic	2,723	08	November, 1850.
§Falcon	891	18	December, 1848.
§Ohio	2.432	23	September, 1849.
§Georgia	2,727	42	January, 1850.
§Crescent City	1,291	00	April, 1851.
§El Dorado	1.049	88	April, 1851.
§Empire City	1,751	21	May, 1851,
§Cherokee	1.244	89	May, 1851.
§Illinois	2,123	65	August, 1851.
§Philadelphia	1,238	10	October, 1851.
‖California	1.058	00	October, 1848.
‖Oregon	1.099	00	October. 1848.
‖Panama	1.087	00	November. 1848.
‖Tennessee	1,275	00	———, 1849.
‖Golden Gate	2.068	00	———, 1851.
‖Columbia	778	00	———, 1850.
**Isabel	1,115	00	October, 1848.

* Between New-York and Bremen, via Southampton.

† Between New-York and Havre, via Southampton or Cowes.

‡ Between New-York and Liverpool.

§ Between New-York, Havana, New-Orleans and Chagres; New-York and Chagres, direct; New-York and Chagres, touching at Kingston; and between New-Orleans and Chagres, direct.

‖ Between Panama and Astoria, via San Diego, Monterey, San Francisco and Umpqua city.

** Between Charleston and Havana, via Savannah and Key West.

The steamers of the Collins' line are some six feet deeper than the custom-house rule for calculating tonnage embraced in the calculation, which makes their actual tonnage about twenty-five per cent. more than their registered tonnage, demanded in the table.—*Mr. Collins' report.*

The Pacific Mail Steamship Company has, besides, in the Pacific, seven steamers of different tonnage, but aggregating near five thousand tons. They transport the mail only when exigencies make its transportation by them necessary or expedient.—*Mr. Aspinwall's report.*

4.—THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

We intend, in our next, a paper upon the subject, illustrated by a diagram, which will speak with good effect to the people of the whole country, and exhibit the miserable policy of doleing out a few thousand dollars for opening the navigation of the greatest river upon earth—an "inland sea," which drains an empire equal to that of the Ptolemies and the Antonines. We have faith that this paper will receive its proper consideration in the next Congress, and that the Southwest will obtain all that it fairly has earned, in material aid and countenance.

5.—FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW.

Judge Catron, of the Supreme Court, thus sums up the penalties of this act, which the "higher law" men go about teaching, in their Uncle Tom's Cabins, pulpits, schools and rostrums, is opposed to all godliness, and despicably wicked. The Bible, the Constitution of the United States, the Union itself, are old-fashioned contrivances to perpetuate wrong. Away with them all, and let us go to school to the Stowes, the Tappans, the Beechers.—Thersites rather than Nestor? Barabbas rather than Christ!

The act of 1850 declares:

1st. That any person who shall, knowingly and willingly, obstruct, hinder, *or prevent* such claimant, his agent, or attorney, *or any person or persons, lawfully assisting him, her or them,* from arresting such fugitive, *either with or without process;*

Or 2d. Shall rescue, *or attempt to rescue,* such fugitive, when arrested, from the custody of the claimant, his agent, or attorney, *or from the custody of any other person or persons lawfully assisting;*

Or 3d. Shall *aid, abet,* or assist the person owing service, directly or indirectly, to escape from such claimant, his agent, or attorney, *or other person or persons legally assisting;*

Or 4th. Shall harbor or conceal such fugitive, *so as to prevent his recovery and arrest,* after notice or knowledge of the fact that such person was a fugitive; the person so offending, in either of the cases specified, shall be subject to a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, and imprisonment not exceeding six months, on conviction by indictment. Secondly, that the person thus offending shall forfeit and pay, by way of civil damages, to the party injured by such illegal conduct, the sum of one thousand dollars for each fugitive lost by reason of such conduct, to be recovered by action of debt.

6.—THE TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE.

Since the publication of our article in the July number of the Review, we have received a copy of the very able Remonstrance of the Company to the Congress of the United States, and the equally able Memorial from the same quarter. These documents are understood to be the productions of Mr. Burwell, of Virginia, who has been an active advocate of the interests of the route, and in this he deserves the favor of the whole country. Whatever may be the fate of the enterprise now, it is bound eventually to triumph. In some shape the United States *will* have the right of transit across Tehuantepec, and Mexico may rest assured of that.

7.—INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL CONVENTIONS, FAIRS, &C.

There is to be a great Commercial Convention of all the Southern and Southwestern States held in BALTIMORE, in December next, and preparations on a large scale are to be made for the meeting. All of the states and cities interested are invited to send delegates, and we trust they will. It is fifteen years since the South has met in Convention upon the subject of promoting her foreign and inter-state trade. Success to the movement now. We open our pages to its discussion, and will have a good deal ourselves to say upon it before December.

The *Georgia Fairs* are to be held at Macon in October, and will, as usual, be largely attended. The *Cotton Planters' Convention* convenes there at that time.

Preparations are being made for the *South Carolina Fair* at Charleston, in November, on a scale of great brilliancy. Senator Soulé delivers the address.

There is a Convention to sit 19th August at Union, Virginia, of all the rail-road interests of the state, for the purpose of inducing harmony of action. We hope to attend it.

New-Orleans talks of a Southern and Western Exhibition of Agricultural and Manufacturing products in that city in February, 1853.

The American Institute, New-York, opens its great annual Fair in October, and a Crystal Palace and a World's Fair are things which are to be, and that very soon.

Truly this is an age of Fairs and Conventions. They are the fulcrums on which Archimedean levers are moving the world.

8.—RECENT PUBLICATIONS.

1.—*Annals of the Congress of the United States. Seventh Congress*, from December 7, 1801, to March 3d, 1803, inclusive. 2 vols. Pp. 1379 and 1611. Washington: Gales & Seaton.

We have here compiled from authentic materials, the debates and proceedings in the Seventh Congress of the United States; to which is added an appendix, containing important state papers and public documents, and all the laws of a public nature. To the whole is supplied a copious index. To the historiographer and the politician, these volumes are of great value. At some future time they will be referred to and noticed more in detail.

2.—*The Legislative Guide*. By Joseph B. Burleigh, LL. D. Second edition. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel. Pp. 287.

This book contains, to use the words of the title-page, which are sufficiently descriptive of the contents of the work, all the rules for conducting business in Congress; Jefferson's Manual, and the Citizens' Manual, including a concise system of rules of order, founded on congressional proceedings; with copious notes and marginal references, explaining the rules and the authority therefor, designed to economise time and secure uniformity in the proceedings of all deliberative assemblies, and also to meet the wants of every private citizen who desires to understand the right way to transact public business. The book is well adapted to answering the objects of its publication.

3.—*The History of the Restoration of Monarchy in France*. By Alphonse de Lamartine. Vol. II. New-York: Harper & Brothers. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan. Pp. 499.

That this work of Lamartine's is written with spirit, and contains much matter that is highly interesting, even those who do not admire the style and manner of the author, must admit. Whether, however, it can stand the test of criticism, and be approved as veritable history, is much more questionable. The habits of composition which distinguish Lamartine, and the characteristics of his mind, are not such as give assurances of a trustworthy historian. He paints too much, and colors too highly, rather like the romance-writer than like the grave composer of mere history. Yet has he made a very readable book, and one that will be perused by many with delight.

4.—*The Bible in the Family*; or, Hints on Domestic Happiness. By H. A. Boardman, D. D. Fourth edition. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel. Pp. 328.

This is a home book, and treats on home subjects. Domestic happiness, considered in the light of the various family relations, is the theme which is discussed; and it is discussed in an able, pleasing, and successful manner.

5.—*The History of Virginia*, from its Earliest Settlement to the Present Time. By T. S. Arthur and W. H. Carpenter. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel. Pp. 332.

The volume before us forms one of Lippincott's Cabinet Histories of the States. It is well and pleasingly written. There is one objection to the book, which seems to us a serious one. The history purports to be brought down to the present time; but only *eight* pages out of the 332 are devoted to that part of it which belongs to the present century. The narrative, moreover, is wholly confined to the progress of *events*. We find in it nothing of natural history, of geology, geography, agriculture, etc. This is to be regretted. What is done, however, is well done.

6.—*Marco Paul's Voyages and Travels*. Erie Canal, and Adventures in New-York. Pp. 203 and 192. By Jacob Abbott. New-York: Harper & Brothers. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan.

These books are two of the series in course of preparation and publication by that graceful and natural writer, Mr. Jacob Abbott. They are intended for the young; and are well calculated to please the minds of such as love to acquire information by instructive reading.

7.—*Waverley Novels*. Abbotsford edition. *Waverley*. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel. Pp. 305.

There is no need of any eulogy of the writings of Walter Scott. They are well known already to fame: and posterity will not willingly let them die. Price, per part, each containing a novel, 50 cents.

8.—*Harpers' New Monthly Magazine* for *July*. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan.

There is no magazine published in America of its kind which can compare with this of the enterprising Harpers. It contains the best articles of the foreign reviews, and much well-digested general intelligence. Price $3 a-year.

9.—*Other Serial Publications*—*a.*) The American Whig Review for July, 1852; *b.*) The Democratic Review for June; *c.*) The Knickerbocker for June and July; *d.*) The New-Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal for July; *e.*) The Bankers' Magazine and Statistical Register for July; *f.*) Hunt's Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review for July; *g.*) The Western Journal and Civilian for June; *h.*) The Southern Literary Messenger for July; *i.*) The Plough, the Loom and the Anvil for June; *j.*) Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine and Engineers' Journal for July; *k.*) The Southern and Western Masonic Miscellany for June; *l.*) The Western Medical News and Cancer Journal, Vol. 1, No. 1, of the new series; *m.*) The Bleak House, No. 4, by Charles Dickens; *n.*) Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution, No. 23. Harper & Brothers and J. C. Morgan; *o.*) London Labor and London Poor, Part 19—Harper & Brothers and J. C. Morgan; *p.*) The Literary World of July 3. and July 10; *q.*) The Soil of the South for July; *r.*) The Musical World and Journal of the Fine Arts, July 1. 1852; *s.*) The Journal of Agriculture for June 16; *t.*) United States Economist, etc. for May; *u.*) Morton's Literary Gazette, Vol. 2. No. 6, for June; *v.*) American Railroad Journal for June 19 and 26. and July 3 and 10. These serials contains the ordinary amount of appropriate matter. Most of them have been already spoken of at some length on previous occasions; and need, therefore, no particular mention at present. Some of them, particularly those first mentioned, should find a place on every gentleman's reading-table.

10. *Traditions and Reminiscences—chiefly of the Revolution in the South—including Biographical Sketches, Incidents, Anecdotes, &c.* By Joseph Johnson, M. D. [From the Press of Walker and James, Charleston, S. C.]

Since the publication of Major Gardiner's "Anecdotes of the Revolution," which, although full and interesting, have been for some time out of print, and consequently not readily procurable—no book has appeared, professedly devoted to the "by-scenes" and incidents of the Revolutionary struggle in the South. The present work is, therefore, valuable, if considered merely as a collocation of carefully ascertained facts, such as may form the foundation of many a thrilling romance and legend for future novelists, who think proper to take advantage of the material. But the book is deserving of a warmer commendation than this, when we regard it (as it should be regarded) as a lucid, entertaining, and graphic survey of the many manifestations of the patriotism and devoted energies of our fathers; which, falling not within the scope of graver and more elaborate details of the periods, are yet illustrative of its spirit, and are calculated to develop a liberal understanding of its policy. Some one has said of Voltaire's Histories—at least the majority of them—that they can only be considered "a farrago of lies." The remark, eminently true of *him*, may apply in a modified degree to *all* histories, and consequently the matter which the legitimate historiographer rejects, is very often a fairer exponent of the real condition and character of a people than is generally allowed. We have, therefore, always placed more reliance upon works like this of Dr. Johnson's than the majority of readers; and if at all well-written, we derive more pleasure from them.

The "Traditions and Reminiscences," which we have carefully perused, besides containing much that is new, are penned by one, who, having entered *con amore* upon his task, has performed it well. To all who take an interest in the stirring events of a time "which tried men's souls," we may commend this volume, with the assurance than they will not be disappointed, either in the style of the composition, or the selection and arrangement of its details.

11.—*The Antiquary*. Vol II. Part I. of the edition now being published by Lippincott, Grambo & Co., Philadelphia. New-Orleans, J. B. Steel. Pp. 262.

The notice, above given, contains all the information which it necessary for us to impart respecting this book.

12.—*La Gran Quivera; or Rome Unmasked*—A Poem. This work, from the press of Pudney & Russell, 79 John street, New-York, like every thing else from their hands, possesses the highest typographic beauty, and the binding is equally fine.

The story is somewhat in the fashion of Don Juan, and finds its leading incidents in the events of the Mexican war. There are seven cantos. We will not agree with the author that his work is at best a "splendid trifle" and no more. To be sure, there are salient points of favorable and adverse criticism. We have time now for neither, and if we had, should confine ourself to the many merits, being disarmed, further, by the confession of the preface, that the poem "was prepared to while away the solitary hours of *a very fair and a very partial critic*," to whom he has dedicated it in touching and beautiful terms. The author is, we believe, a Tennesseean

13.—*Translations from the Meditations of Lamartine*, with Fugitive Pieces by James T. Smith, of Louisiana.

A splendidly issued work, and also from the press of Pudney & Russell. The author is well known among the prairies of the Attakapas; and the only time we ever had the pleasure of meeting him was in 1848, at a party on the Teche, when every thing went merrily as a marriage bell. We recollect his reciting a pretty piece of his own, entitled "The Belles of St. Mary," and we regret not to find it in the collection, for St. Mary's belles are worthy of all poetry and song, and we wonder that bards have not multiplied there. If we had time it would please us to extract from some of the pieces of this collection—perhaps "Which is the Fairest Flower," or "Plant it in Love," as they are indisputably the best.

14.—*The Bankers' Magazine* for June, 1852. Boston.

Contents, *a.*) The Bank of England. *b.*) Bank Statistics. *c.*) Lawson's History of Banking. *d*) Decisions of the Supreme Court of Maine, etc. *e.*) Prize Essay on Banking. *f.*) Bank Items. *g.*) Miscellaneous. *h.*) Bank Correspondence. *i.*) Notes on the Money Market for May, 1852.

15—*The Napoleon Dynasty, or the History of the Bonaparte Family*—with 20 portraits. Cornish, Lamport & Co., New-York, 1852.

This is a large and very handsome volume, and the material appears to have been carefully collected, as it is most graphically and powerfully worked up. We had hoped to present some of the fine passages which every where abound. From the public archives of our own and of foreign states, and from members of the Bonaparte family on both sides of the Atlantic, valuable authentic materials have been obtained, now first brought to light. Among the portraits are Napoleon, Carolo, Lætitia, Cardinal Fesch, Josephine, Maria Louisa, Joseph, Lucien, Louis, Hortense, Jerome, Elizabeth Patterson, Jerome Napoleon, Eliza, Pauline, Caroline, Eugene, Joachim Murat, Louis Napoleon.

GAYARRE'S HISTORY OF LOUISIANA.

Our friend, the author, has kindly furnished us in advance with the sheets of his work, which is soon to be issued in handsome style from the press of Mr Wiley, New-York, and will constitute vol. II. of his invaluable historical labors. The period embraced extends from the year 1740 down to the delivery of the province to Spain. He has had access to documents from Spain which put an entirely new face upon this period of our history, as is shown to some extent here, but which will appear more conspicuously in the 3d and closing volume, now prepared for the press.

Mr. Gayarre has followed with great fidelity the record, with which his labors may at any time be confronted. Having concluded for his own amusement the romance of the history, he now gives us the history itself, though with a good deal of attractiveness of style and manner.

Had the sheets come into our possession earlier, they would have formed the basis of an article which must have been deeply interesting, and we would also have given a great many extracts. The grateful task must now be reserved for our next issue. Meanwhile let every Louisianian order the book from Morgan as soon as it arrrives.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

We thank "Gertrude" for her beautiful letter from Italy. It came too late for the Review, and we took the liberty of inserting it in another journal which she will receive as soon as she gets this. Should she not, a line to the office of the Review, New-Orleans, will bring several copies. We love the inspirations of the young and buoyant heart, replete with genius and with promise. May we not hope that these inspirations will take shape and form oftener in the future. We extend the columns of either journal to her. Will she throw off the veil?

We call the attention of merchants and others to the advertisement of the Salamander Safes which appears on our cover. These safes have stood the tests triumphantly in the great fires of New-York, New-Orleans, San Francisco, etc., as thousands of certificates now before us show, all of which can be seen at the office of the agent, Mr. Bridge, in New Orleans.

Thanks to J. R. Watkins, Esq., of Richmond, for valuable Historical Documents—to Senators Soulé, Rusk, Downs, etc., for Congressional Documents, and to Marshall P., Wilder, of Mass., for Agricultural Documents.

No. 2 of Taxation—an able paper upon Mexico—one upon Spain, &c., must be reserved to our next.

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MAGAZINES FOR JULY.

Harpers'; De Bow; Knickerbocker; Eclectic; Hunt's Merchants'; Bankers' Magazine; Mechanics' Magazine; Godey's Lady's Book; Graham's Magazine; Sartain's Union Magazine; Freemason's Magazine; Blackwood for June; Edinburgh, London Quarterly, North British and Westminster Reviews for April; London Art Journal for June; London Lancet for June.

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MEDICAL COLLEGE OF THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

The annual course of Lectures in this Institution commences on the first Monday in November, and terminates the first Saturday in March. Lectures will be delivered on the following branches:—

Anatomy, by J. E. Holbrook, M. D.

Surgery, by E. Geddings, M. D.

Institutes and Practice, by S. Henry Dickson, M. D.

Physiology, by James Moultrie. M. D.

Materia Medica. by Henry R. Frost, M. D.

Obstetrics, by Thos. G. Prioleau, M. D.

Chemistry, by C. U. Shepard, M. D.

*Comparative Anatomy. by L. Agassiz, M. D.

Demonstrator of Anatomy, St. Julian Ravenel, M. D.

Assistant Demonstrator, F. T. Miles, M. D.

Prosector to the Professor of Surgery, J. F. M. Geddings, M. D.

Clinical Lectures are delivered twice a week at the Marine Hospital, and Hospital of the Alms-house, by the physicians of those Institutions.

Demonstrative Instruction in Medicine and Surgery at the College Hospital, by the Professor of the Medical College.

The Dissecting-Rooms will be opened on the first day of November.

The commencement will be held at an early date in March

For further information of the organization and course of instruction in the College, and other details, a printed circular can be obtained by reference to

HENRY R. FROST, M. D., *Dean.*

*At a Special Meeting of the Trustees and Faculty of the Medical College, held on the 3d day of January, 1852, Dr. L. Agassiz was unanimously elected Professor of Comparative Anatomy, with the distinct understanding that the collegiate expenses of the Student are not to be increased by this addition to the course.

PENNSYLVANIA COLLEGE.

Medical Department.

NINTH BELOW LOCUST-ST.

The Lectures in this Institution for the Session of 1852–3, will commence on Monday, October 11th, and be continued, without interruption, until the ensuing 1st of March, including a full course of instruction in all the departments of a medical education.

The Faculty is constituted as follows:

William Darrach, M. D., Profr. of Practice of Medicine.

John Wiltbank. M. D., Profr. of Obstetrics and Diseases of Women and Children.

Henry S. Patterson, M. D., Profr. of Materia Medica and Therapeutics.

David Gilbert, M. D., Profr. of Principles and Practice of Surgery.

John G. Reese, M. D., Profr. of Medical Chemistry and Pharmacy.

Jonathan M. Allen, M. D., Profr. of Anatomy.

Francis G. Smith, M. D., Profr. of Institutes of Medicine.

Wm. H. Gobrecht, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy.

Second course students are furnished with a ticket to the Clinical lectures of the Pennsylvania Hospital, without additional charge. Clinical Lectures on Medicine and Surgery, with operations, are delivered twice a week in the College, by the Professors of Practice and Surgery. The Anatomical Rooms will be open early in September. Fees—Matriculation, $5. Ticket of each chair, $15. Graduation, $30.

For further information, address David Gilbert., M. D., Registrar, No. 181 North Ninth-st.

Sept—1t.

PHILADELPHIA.

FEMALE MEDICAL COLLEGE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Session of 1852–53.

The Third Annual Session of this Institution will commence on the 13th of September, 1852, and continue four months and a half.

FACULTY.

Joseph S. Longshore, M. D., Professor of Obstetrics, [illegible] Diseases of Women and Chil-

N. R. Moseley, M. D., Professor of Anatomy.

Abraham Livezey, M. D., Professor of Practice of Medicine.

David J. Johnson, M. D., Professor of Chemistry and Toxicology.

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David J. Johnson, M. D.,
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229 Arch-street.

UNIVERSITY OF NASHVILLE.

Medical Department.

The Second Annual Course of Lectures in this department will commence on the first Monday of November next, and continue till the first of the ensuing March.

Paul F. Eve, M. D., Principles and Practice of Surgery.
John M. Watson, M. D., Obstetrics and the Diseases of Women and Children.
A. H. Buchanan, M. D., Surgical and Pathological Anatomy and Physiology.
W. K. Bowling, M. D. Institutes and Practice of Medicine.
C. K. Winston, M.D., Materia Medica and Medical Jurisprudence.
Robert M. Porter, M. D., General and Special Anatomy.
J. Berrien Lindsley, M. D., Chemistry and Pharmacy.
William T. Briggs, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy.

The Anatomical rooms will be opened for students on the first Monday of October.

A full *Preliminary Course* of Lectures will be given by the Professors, commencing also on the first Monday of October.

Fee of each Professor $15; Matriculation ticket $5; Dissecting ticket $10; Graduation fee $25.

Good board can be obtained in the city at from $2 50 to $3 per week. Further information may be obtained by addressing the Dean.

March 1852. J. B. LINDSLEY, M. D., *Dean.*

Britannia Ware.

The subscriber would respectfully call the attention of southern merchants to their stock of the above ware, consisting of tea-sets, coffee-pots, sugar and slop bowls, cream and molasses cups, castors, lamps, candlesticks, spittoons, pitchers, spoons, &c., &c., of varied patterns; being persuaded that from their long experience in manufacturing the above ware, they will be able to give perfect satisfaction.

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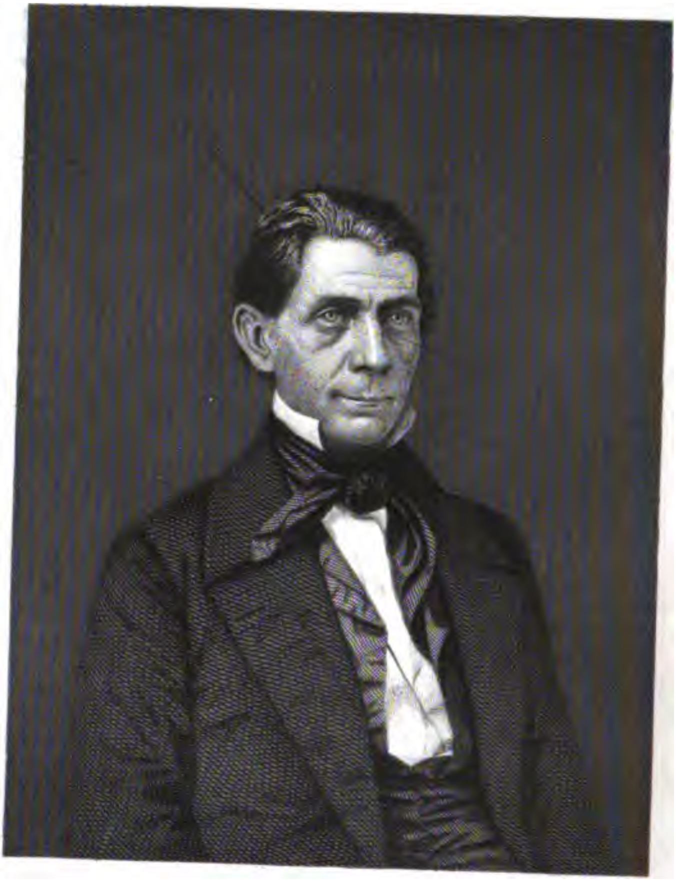

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ART. I.—MEXICO IN 1852.

EMBRACING A RETROSPECT OF HER PAST HISTORY, AND CONTRASTING IT WITH THE PRESENT; TOGETHER WITH A VIEW OF HER RESOURCES AND WEALTH IN AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.—HER GOVERNMENT, LAWS AND INSTITUTIONS, ETC.

[In some of the previous volumes of the Review, we have published valuable papers upon Mexico—those by the Hon. Joel R. Poinsett and by Brantz Mayer, being the most elaborate. As our interest in Mexico naturally increases, and will continue to increase, the following paper, which exhausts the subject in every point of view, cannot but attract wide attention.]—Ed.

There are few countries on the globe, whether we consider their geographical position, their facilities for commerce, or their agricultural and mineral resources, upon which nature has more bountifully lavished her gifts, than Mexico. Situated in the most central position of the New World, and washed by two oceans, one on the east, and the other on the west; possessed of every variety of climate; of a soil of extraordinary fertility; of inexhaustible mines of the precious and other metals; and of immense forests of the most valuable timber in the world, one might easily fancy that it was designed to be the seat of a vast and powerful empire—that it was marked out for the 'Ομφαλὸς Γῆς of the Western World. Mexico, however, is but a striking and pitiful illustration of the observation that often forces itself upon the mind of the general observer, that nature's fairest and choicest portions of the earth are too often cursed in their inhabitants, while they are blessed in all that unassisted nature could lavish upon them. Mexico is what she is, solely from being possessed by an indolent, ignorant, and unprogressive race.

The taking of the capital of Mexico on the 13th of August, 1521, by D. Fernando Cortes, terminated the conquest of the Mexican

Empire, and commenced the long and inglorious Spanish rule, which even at the present day disgraces one of the fairest portions of the world. The fall of Montezuma, and the seizure of his capital, was rapidly succeeded by the subjugation of all the provinces over which it was the first work of Cortes to extend the Spanish sway, he himself ruling them under the title of Captain-General and Governor, which was conferred upon him by Charles V. on the 15th of October, 1522, and confirmed in 1525, with the additional title of Civil and Military Governor of the coasts of the South of New Spain.*

For all his great services to the crown of Spain, Cortes was treated, as Columbus had been before him, with the basest ingratitude, the Emperor finally refusing to appoint him Captain-General of Mexico, and suffering him to fall into neglect. He died near Seville, in 1554, at the age of 63.

Under the Spanish arrangements for the government of Mexico, it was erected into a subordinate kingdom, under a Viceroy, with powers nearly equal to those of the sovereign, he being restrained only by a *Residencia*, or court of investigation, which had the power of calling him to an account for the acts of his administration, on his return to Spain; and by the *Audiencia*, or court of final appeal in Mexico, which was first established in Mexico in 1528. The viceroyalty was not fully established until 1535, when the first Viceroy, Don Antonio de Mendoza, was appointed. From that time down to the year 1821, a space of 286 years, Mexico continued to be a melancholy and disgraceful blank in the history of nations, and known only by its issues of the precious metals. The natives were regarded as freemen and vassals of the crown of Spain, but the Spanish discoverers, settlers, and their posterity, were to have a preference in all civil and ecclesiastical appointments, a system which still continues in Cuba, where those of pure Spanish blood have the preference.

The natives of Mexico were thus excluded from holding any office of trust or profit. The great object of the Spanish government was to keep the country in the hands of the European or white population; and the means adopted to effect this object were: First, to discourage native manufactures, for the benefit of those belonging to the mother country. Spain, however, was not alone in the execution of such a disgraceful policy, for England did the same thing towards her American colonies. Secondly, to make all the ecclesiastical establishments wholly dependent on the King of Spain, without any interference of the Pope. Besides the discouragement of domestic manufactures, the growth of flax, hemp and saffron was prohibited, under severe penalties; that of tobacco, as now, was made a government monopoly. The cultivation of the vine and olive was likewise prohibited; that of coffee, cocoa, and indigo, tolerated only under certain restrictions, and in such quantities as might suffice for the demands of the mother country.

Such was the barbarous system of the old Spanish Viceroyalty of

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* Adelantado de las costas del sur de la Nueva España.

Mexico, a system which was maintained for nearly three centuries, during which time sixty-three Viceroys succeeded one another, most of whom were miserable tyrants, and distinguished for nothing but their fidelity to the barbarous system which they were required to sustain, and for their private vices and public cruelties—their extortions and their arbitrary rule. Of the sixty-three Viceroys, ten were Archbishops. The clergy, undoubtedly, were the most influential class, and shared largely in the administration of the government, and had the sole charge, as now, of the education of the people. In their zeal to suppress the idolatry of the aborigines, a cruel and exterminating persecution was maintained. The Aztec temples, altars, idols, and monuments of every description, were destroyed without discrimination; thus depriving the world of many valuable antiquities that would have, undoubtedly, contributed much to our present knowledge of the earliest inhabitants of this continent.[*]

The oppressive and intolerable rule of the Viceroys continued with unabated severity until the year 1808, when the arrival of the news of the abdication of Charles VI. of Spain gave a shock to the royal authority in Mexico, which no skill of the Viceroys could afterwards repair. The natives and colored population, who had so long groaned under the oppressions of the Viceroys, seized this opportunity of asserting their rights. They were resisted by the *Audiencia*, who seized also the Viceroy, Iturrigarry, and sent him to Spain, where he was confined a prisoner until the general amnesty. The viceroyalty continued, the *Audiencia* administering the government, as it always had done, in the interim between the deposition or death of one Viceroy and the appointment of another. In 1810, another insurrection against the authorities of Spain broke out, headed by Hidalgo and Morelos, two priests of New Spain. Under the auspices of the latter, the first National Congress assembled, in 1813, at Chilpanzingo, and published a declaration of the independence of Mexico. A sanguinary guerrilla warfare was kept up for several years, until, in 1821, Iturbide, who had previously been a royalist, suddenly declared in favor of the liberal party, and published his celebrated manifesto of Iguala, in favor of a constitutional monarchy. The whole population joined his standard; and such was his power, that the new Viceroy, Don Juan O'Donojú, who arrived at Vera Cruz on the 21st of July, 1821, in order to take charge of the government, found it necessary to conclude a treaty with Iturbide, on the 24th of August following, at Cordova, by which he accepted the plan of independence proclaimed by Iturbide, and thus abandoned the viceroyalty. He died in the city of Mexico on the 8th of the following October.

The city of Mexico was occupied on the 8th of September, 1821, by the troops of Iturbide, who, as generalissimo, convoked a junta of notable personages, who, on the following day, published an act declaring solemnly the independence of the nation, conformably to the bases established in the plan of Iguala and in the treaty of Cordova. This act was universally recognized and approved. The new government was at first carried on by a regency of four persons, at the head of whom was Iturbide. This mode of administration continued only until the 18th of May, 1822, when Iturbide was proclaimed Emperor by a part of the people of the capital. He assumed the title of AGUSTIN I., and governed until the 19th of March, 1823, when he abdicated the crown, in consequence of a revolution which proclaimed the establishment of a republican government. The immediate cause of his great unpopularity was his having dissolved the congress by military force. He was allowed to retire from the country on an annual allowance of £5,000, in consideration of his past services to the country; but this was accompanied by an edict of outlawry in case he should return. In spite, however, of this prohibition, he returned clandestinely, and being discovered, was seized and executed.

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[*] Speaking of the indiscriminate destruction of monuments, the greatest of Mexican antiquaries, Antonio de Gama, thus complains: "Quantos preciosos monumentos de la antiguedad, por falta de intelligenza, habran perecido en esta mañera."

On the expulsion of Iturbide, the congress was re-assembled, and a provisional government was formed, consisting of a junta of five persons, who governed until the 10th of October, 1824, when General GUADALUPE VICTORIA was elected first President of the Republic of Mexico, under a new constitution, which was sanctioned and published on the 4th of October, 1824. The government was modeled on that of the United States. Under the constitution of 1824, fifteen presidents succeeded one another until 1837, when a change in the constitution was made, chiefly through the instrumentality of Santa Anna, by which the former federal system of government was overthrown, and a Central Republic established in its stead. Of this, Anastatia Bustamente was the first president. Under the Central Republic, there were five presidents, the last of whom, Javier Echeverria, was deposed by a revolution on the 10th of October, 1841. A dictatorship followed, first of Santa Anna, then of Nicholas Bravo, then of Santa Anna again, and lastly of Valentin Canalizo, who terminated his dictatorship on the 4th of June, 1844, when the Central Republic was revived, under the modified constitution of 1843. Under the restored Central Republic, there were five presidents within the space of two years, and three revolutions, deposing three out of the five, Canalizo, Herrera, and Nicholas, who fell on the 4th of August, 1846. Santa Anna, the first of this notable dynasty, held power only about three months.

The Federal Republic was now restored; and by a decree of Mariano Salas, charged with the executive power, and chief of the army, the constitution of 1824, the one now in force, was re-established. Under the new order of things, Mariano Salas was the first executive. Since 1846, he has been succeeded by eight administrations. The present President of the Republic of Mexico is MARIANO ARISTA.

Of Mexico, since the overthrow of the viceroyalty, it may be safely affirmed, that anarchy and misrule have never been absent from the republic, so called, and that the people have degenerated space. The state of the country has been, and continues to be, one bordering on barbarism. The government is, in fact, a military despotism, in the hands of a few, who regard less the improvement of the country than their own private interests. The people, plunged into the grossest ignorance, are utterly unfit for self-government, and are made the tools of every ambitious leader.

GEOGRAPHY OF THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO.—The territory of the Mexican Republic extends from the 15th to the 32d degree of north latitude. Its northern boundary, as fixed by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, is a line extending from the mouth of the Rio Bravo del Norte, along the middle of that river, up to the southern boundary of New Mexico; thence following the southern and western boundary of New Mexico to the river Gila; thence down the Gila to the Colorado, and thence by a line due west to a point on the Pacific, one mile south of the port of San Diego. On the south of Mexico is Guatemala; on the east, the Gulf of Mexico; and on the west, the Pacific. The greatest length of the republic is a straight line extending from San Diego to the extreme southern part of Chiapas, a distance of 750 leagues. Its greatest breadth is about 424 leagues. The extent of its entire sea-coast is about 2,199 leagues. The extent of its northern frontier is 660 leagues; and of its southern, 202. The area of its territory is estimated at 115,426 square leagues, or 1,038,834 square miles, by D. Miguel M. Lerdo de Tejada, the latest writer on the subject. The area of Mexico, then, is about one-third that of all Europe.

The islands belonging to Mexico are Cozumel, Concum, Mugeres, Contoy, in the sea of the Antilles; Lobos and Carmen, in the Gulf of Mexico; Cerros, Guadalupe, San Bernardo, Santa Margarita, the Tres Marias, and Revillagigedo, in the Pacific; and San Ignacio, Angel de Guarda, Tiburon, Salsipuedes, San Pedro, Santa Catalina, San José, Espiritu Santo, and Cerralvo, in the Gulf of California.

MOUNTAINS.—A large portion of the Mexican territory is occupied by the immense chain of the Cordilleras, which runs through its whole length, rendering the surface of the country extremely varied. At the northern border of Guatemala the Cordilleras divides into two diverging arms, the western following the coast of the Pacific, and passing entirely through the republic; the eastern following parallel to the coast of the gulf, and subsiding into the plains of Texas. The whole vast tract of country between these two arms, comprising about three-fifths of the entire area of Mexico, consists of a central table-land, called the Plateau of Anahuac, elevated from 6,000 to 8,000 feet above the level of the sea. Hence the climate of this vast plateau is temperate, though mostly within the tropics. Some very high mountains are dispersed over the surface of the central table-land, and it is also traversed, in parts, by pretty well defined ridges, which divide it into extensive sub-plateaux; but the surface is interrupted by few transverse valleys; and in some directions it is quite unbroken either by depressions or by hills. Thus, according to Humboldt, carriages proceed from the capital, in the centre of the plateau, to Santa Fe, a distance of 1,400 miles, without any important deviations from an apparent level.[*]

The geological formation of the Mexican Cordilleras is different from that of the mountains of Europe and Asia, in which granite is found, overlaid by gneiss, mica, and clay-slate; while, in Mexico, in the eastern chain of the Cordilleras, granite is seldom met with on the surface, and it is overlaid with porphyry, green-stone, amygdaloid, basalt, obsidian, and other igneous rocks. In the western chain, however, bordering on the Pacific, granite appears on the surface. The port of Acapulco is a natural excavation in that species of rock. The great central plateau of Anahuac, between lat. 14° and 20° N., is a mass of porphyry, characterized by the constant presence of hornblende and the entire absence of quartz. Here are found large deposits of gold and silver. These ores are, however, found also in syenite, as in the mines of Comjana; in primitive clay-slate, as at Guanaxuato; and in transition limestone, in other places.

The mountains of Mexico exhibit a multitude of peaks of great height, the plateau of Anahuac itself being from 6,000 to 9,000 feet above the sea. Towering far above this lofty table-land are colossal mountains, concealing at times amidst the clouds their lofty tops. The principal of these we give below, in a tabular view, taken from the *Cuadro Sinoptico de la Republica Mexicana en* 1850, of M. L. de Tejada, reducing his *metros* or metres to English feet:

HIGHEST MOUNTAINS IN MEXICO.

Names.	Height in feet.	States.
Popocatepetl*	18,000	Mexico.
Pico de Orizava* (Citlaltepetl)	17,600	Vera Cruz.
Yxtaccihuatl*	15,900	Mexico.
Cerro de Ajusco	13,800	"
Nevado de Toluca	14,800	"
Cofre de Perote* (Nauchampatepetl)	13,600	Vera Cruz.
Volcano de Colima*	12,200	Colima.
Peak of Zempoaltepetl	11,300	Oajaca.
Pico de Quincoo	11,000	Michoacan.
Volcano del Jorullo*	4,300	"
Volcano of Soconusco*	8,000	Chiapas.
Bufa de Zacatecas	8,700	Zacatecas.
Cerro de Veta Grande	9,200	"
Cerro del Mercado	8,000	Durango.
Peak of Jesus Maria	8,300	Chihuahua.

Those mountains marked thus (*) in the above table are active volcanoes; and we should also add the volcano of Tuxtla. There are also a great many extinct volcanoes. The active volcano of Jorullo, west of the city of Mexico, first broke out in 1759, when a tract of land, from three to four miles square, swelled up like an inflated bladder, emitting flames and fragments of rock through a thousand apertures. These active volcanoes seem to be connected with others parallel to them of similar origin. Earthquakes are common in Mexico, but they seldom do much harm. This may be owing to their being so many active volcanoes in the country, which constantly give vent to the internal fires, and prevent any destructive accumulation of forces.

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[*] Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne, p. 254, vol. i.

RIVERS.—The rivers of Mexico are few, compared with the extent of territory. The Rio Bravo is the largest river. It is 1,800 miles in length, and is navigable several hundred miles by small steamers. The Coatzacoalcos is the next in importance, it being navigable for light draft steamers 125 miles. The Panuco, which empties into the gulf at Tampico, would be navigable for a considerable distance, if the mouth was not obstructed by a bar. The same may be said of the Tula and of the Tobasco. The latter is 132 leagues in length. The Gila is 182 leagues in length; the Yaqui, 137 leagues. Both of these rivers empty into the Gulf of California, but are not navigable. The Santiago 6 de Lerma is 208 leagues in length, and empties into the Pacific at San Blas.

The lakes of Mexico are all small. Lake Terminos is the largest. Its area is 306 square leagues; that of Lake Caiman, 178 square leagues; and that of Tamiagua, 102 square leagues. There are a great many others, but all too small to deserve notice.

CLIMATE.—The temperature and climate of Mexico is extremely various. This is owing to two causes—the great extent of the country from north to south, and the elevation and rapidity of slope of the table-land region in the centre towards the east and west. The climates, especially on the east side, are more distinctly marked by the vegetation. On the ascent from Vera Cruz, climates succeed each other in layers; and the traveler passes in review, in the course of two days, the whole scale of vegetation, from the parasitic plants of the tropics to the pines of the arctic regions.*

There are in Mexico three pretty well marked climates: First, that of all the country of a less elevation than 2,000 feet, embracing all the low lands on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, and including the peninsula of Yucatan and the greater part of the states of Tamaulipas, Vera Cruz and Tobasco. This is the hot region, or *tierras calientes*. Secondly, the *tierras templadas*, or temperate regions, occupying the slope of the mountain chains or barriers which bound on either side the central table-lands. These regions are of comparatively limited extent, embracing the region beginning at the elevation of 2,500 feet and extending to that of 5,000. The mean heat of the year in this region is from 68° to 70° Fahrenheit. The extremes of heat and cold are unknown. In this delightful climate are the cities of Xalapa, on the east, and of Chilpanzingo on the southwest slope, so famous for their salubrity and for the abundance of their fruit trees. The Mexican oak, and most of the fruits and cerealia of Europe, flourish in this region. The climate is, however, humid, owing to the frequency of fogs, giving great beauty, luxuriance, and strength to the vegetation.

Of the *tierras calientes* we would remark, that they are much less extensive on the western than on the eastern coast. The mean temperature, between the tropics, is about 77° Fah. This region is especially suited to the growth of sugar, cotton, indigo and bananas. All the tropical fruits flourish in the utmost luxuriance. The great disadvantage of this region is its unhealthiness. Endemic diseases, such as the *vomito prieto*, the *fiebre amarilla*, and intermittent fevers (*los frios*) prevail, and almost invariably attack the unacclimated. The *vomito prieto*, or yellow fever, prevails from August to October, between the tropics, but does not extend its ravages beyond the low grounds on the sea-coast; and at the height of 2,000 or 2,500 feet above the sea, it is wholly unknown. The sea-ports on both coasts are extremely unhealthy for strangers.

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*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne, vol. i., pp. 269–290.

On the western coast, owing to the prevalence of strong gales, approaching to hurricanes, during the months of July, August, September and October, the navigation is extremely dangerous. On the eastern coast, in the Gulf of Mexico, from October to March, north or northeast winds, *los nortes*, or "northers," are extremely prevalent, blowing often with great violence. Frequently, in March especially, these north winds approach to the character of hurricanes, continuing to blow without intermission, from three to twelve days together, rendering the navigation extremely dangerous.

The *tierras frias*, or cold regions of Mexico, include all the extensive table-lands elevated 5,000 feet and upwards above the sea. The city of Mexico, at an elevation of 7,400 feet, has a mild climate, the mercury of the thermometer very rarely falling, in winter, to the freezing point. In the coldest season the mean heat of the day varies from 55° to 70° Fah. In summer the thermometer seldom rises in the shade above 75°. The mean temperature of the city of Mexico is about 64°, while that of the table-land generally is about 62°, which is nearly that of Rome. Where the table-lands rise to 8,000 feet or more, the climate, although within the torrid zone, becomes rude and disagreeable. Under the parallel of Mexico the limit of perpetual snow varies from 12 to near 15,000 feet. There is a sensible increase in the variety of the atmosphere on the central plateau, which renders vegetation less vigorous than in the *tierras calientes*, and European plants do not thrive perfectly well.

In the tropical and central regions of Mexico, as far north as lat. 28°, there are but two seasons in the year—the wet and the dry; the former extending from June to October, and the latter from October to May. From the 24th to the 30th parallel the rainy season is less marked, and there is an abundance of snow during January and February.

The climate of the table-lands is, on the whole, favorable to health. Intermittent fevers are rare. Famines, owing to the habitual indolence of the great mass of the population, has often thinned the people more than epidemic complaints. The indolence of the natives prevents all exertions to raise more food than necessary for the wants of a single ordinary season; and no one ever thinks, when there is a surplus, of laying up a stock against future contingencies.

Agriculture.—Mexico, from its extent through 21 degrees of latitude, and from the varied elevation of its surface, causing a great variety of climate, produces most of the tropical plants as well as those of the temperate zones. Humboldt says, that there is scarcely in the world a plant not susceptible of cultivation in some part of Mexico, and that it would not be an easy task for the botanist to obtain even a tolerable acquaintance with the multitudes of plants in the mountains and in the vast forests at the foot of the Cordilleras.* The soil, according to all travelers in Mexico, is of extraordinary fertility, and produces abundantly when irrigated. Each climate has its peculiar plants. The banana flourishes in all parts where the mean temperature is 75° Fahr. It bears the same relation to the Mexicans that the various cerealia bear to the Europeans and the western Asiatics, and the different kinds of rice to the Bengalees and Chinese. It is propagated by cuttings, and there is probably no other plant in the world that produces on the same extent of land, and with so little labor, so great a quantity of food. Humboldt affirms that an acre of land planted with bananas will supply more than fifty individuals with food, while the same extent of land sown with wheat, in other parts of the world, would not supply more than two. All the labor required to raise this enormous produce, is to cut off the stems when the fruit is ripe, and to loosen the earth slightly about the roots of the plant once or twice a year. Hence, says Humboldt, nothing strikes a European, recently arrived in Mexico, with more astonishment, than the smallness of the patches of cultivated ground around cabins that swarm with men, women and children.

The banana is a tall herbaceous, endogenous plant, the *musa sapientum* of botanists, having broad convex leaves, with fine oblique veins, and growing in a tuft from the top of a stem formed by the union of the broad bases of the leaves. The fruit ripens in succession in large clusters, weighing many pounds. It is of the same nature as the plantain.

The ease with which the natives of Mexico obtain a subsistence, and the fewness of their wants, have rendered them in the last degree slothful. Humboldt says, that it was once gravely proposed in Mexico to grub up and destroy all the banana plantations, in order to stimulate the industry of the natives, and rouse their torpid faculties.

In the same region with the banana grows the cassava or manioc, the flour of which makes a very nourishing bread. It requires more care than the banana, somewhat resembles the potato, and arrives at maturity in about eight months after the slips have been planted.

Maize, or Indian corn, is cultivated in all parts of Mexico, even on the plateaux 9,000 feet above the sea. It is the principal food of the people and of most domestic animals. A deficient crop of it, which sometimes happens, is followed by famine and great distress. The cultivation of Indian corn is pursued in many parts of Mexico on a scale quite unknown in this country. Mr. A. M. Gillam, late U. S. Consul to California, who traveled in Mexico in 1843–4, states that, near Zacatecas, he "traveled by the side of a continued corn-field which extended some seven or eight miles. This I know," he adds, "is difficult for the inhabitants of the United States to believe, but it is nevertheless true." With equal veracity it is stated, "that the eye could not detect the breadth of the cultivated field, for it was lost in the distance over the level plain. It was the hacienda or plantation of

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*Nouvelle Espagne, vol. ii., p. 370.

San Jacinto, and the property of Conde Perez Galvez. Besides the maize growing on that farm, there were wheat and other crops."*

Agriculture in Mexico is limited simply to the production of enough of the fruits of the earth to supply the consumption of the people. The cultivated lands are chiefly devoted to Indian corn, *chile*, (pimento,) which, says Humboldt, is as indispensably necessary to the natives as salt to the whites, and to the raising of *frijoles*, a kind of bean. Corn, chile and frijoles are, in general, the sole food of the poorer classes. Wheat, oats, rice, potatoes, peas, habas and chicharos, (species of beans,) lentils, albarjou, maguey, nopal, (a kind of fig,) sugar-cane, cacao, coffee, cotton, tobacco, indigo, black pepper, anise, vanilla, sarsaparilla, olive, the vine, flax, and all kinds of garden vegetables are produced, where the indolence of the people is not too great. Beeswax and silk are also produced in moderate quantities, the former chiefly in the states of Michoacan, Jalisco and Guanajuato.

As to the annual value of the agricultural products of Mexico, at the present time, nothing very definite can be stated. Nothing is exported of consequence, and we must therefore confine ourselves in our estimates to what is produced and consumed in the country. Assuming the population of Mexico at 7,661,919, and that each inhabitant consumes $25 worth of agricultural products annually, we have, as the total value of the agricultural products annually raised, the sum of $191,547,975. This is allowing each inhabitant only about 6¾ cents per day. If to this we add the imports of foreign produce, the timber sold, the cotton raised, amounting to from 70,000 to 80,000 quintals annually, the cochineal, which amounts to some 35,000 or 40,000 arrobas of 32 lbs. each, the hemp, silk, beeswax, &c. &c., the total value of the agricultural products of Mexico, in 1852, will not fall short of $200,000,000.

The Mexican wheat is of excellent quality, equal, says Humboldt, to the best Andalusian. It is large, white and nutritive. When the lands are well irrigated the yield is twenty-four to one. Since the revolution this important branch of agriculture has been much neglected. During the viceroyalty, wheat was an article of export. Humboldt, writing in 1808, says:

> "The Mexican flour enters into competition, at the Havana market, with that of the United States. When the road which is constructing from the table-land of Perote to Vera Cruz shall be completely finished, the grain of New-Spain will be exported for Bordeaux, Hamburg, and Bremen. The Mexicans will then possess a double advantage over the inhabitants of the United States, that of a greater fertility of territory, and that of a lower price of labor."†

Humboldt little thought, when he wrote the above, that, in two years afterwards, New-Spain would be convulsed with a revolution, the results of which have proved destructive to all branches of industry, and completely ruined the country.

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* Gillam, Travels in Mexico, p. 207.

† Nouvelle Espagne, vol. ii., p. 336.

Rye and barley are cultivated in the highest regions of the country, the yield of the latter being very abundant. Oats are but little cultivated, barley being used instead, as in Spain, in imitation of the ancient Greeks and Romans. The cultivation of the potato is confined chiefly to the table-lands; the yam is common to both the high and low lands. Capsicum is raised in vast quantities for its spice, which is universally used instead of salt for seasoning food. One of the most valuable plants in Mexico is the *maguey*, (Agave Americana.) The maguey plantations are principally in the states of La Puebla, *Mexico*, and Guanaxuato; but the plant is found wild in all parts of the country. The growth is slow. When mature its leaves are from five to eight feet in length, and the stem from twenty to thirty feet high. The period of flowering is once in about ten years. At the flowering season, when the plant first begins to be useful, the exact time is watched when the stem of the flower is about to shoot up. The top is then cut off so as to form a hollow for the reception of the sap, which is regularly drawn off. A good plant yields daily about a gallon of juice, for four or five months in succession. This juice, which has a slight sub-acid taste, ferments in three or four days, and thus becomes *pulque*, a beverage somewhat resembling cider, but with a disagreeable smell. This is drank by all classes in Mexico, in vast quantities, many of the whites and Indians using no other drink. A kind of brandy is distilled from the pulque, called *mexical*. The fibres of the maguey plant are also used for making thread, ropes, and paper.

Sugar was, under the viceroyalty, an article of exportation; but for many years past it has ceased to be exported, and the present production is barely sufficient for the home consumption, although there is probably no country in the world capable of producing more sugar than Mexico.

Coffee is another product almost entirely neglected, though the coffee of Mexico is said to be of the finest quality. Tobacco is a government monopoly, and its growth is confined to a small district near Orizava and Cordova. Large quantities are imported.

Agriculture in Mexico has declined, since the Spanish viceroyalty, to an extent that one could hardly conceive possible. Vast tracts of the finest land in the world, formerly cultivated, have long since been entirely abandoned. The old Spanish owners went to great expense in constructing aqueducts for irrigating the lands. These have been suffered to go to ruin. The farming utensils now used are of the rudest description. General Arista, some years ago, attempted to import from the United States plows, harrows, winnowing machines, and other agricultural implements; but they were seized by the government, and he himself thrown into prison. The Mexican agricultural implements of the present day are few, and of the most primitive character. Their plow is nothing more than a rude stick of wood from two to three feet in length, pointed at one end sometimes with iron; at the other end rises a straight stick for a handle, just in front of which is attached a long pole, to which the oxen are fastened by means of a yoke or straight stick of wood lashed to their horns. This rude implement serves the double purpose of a plow and harrow. All other implements are equally rude and inefficient. For the want of proper utensils and industry the lands do not yield one-fourth of what they are capable of yielding.

Among the products of the soil of Mexico may be mentioned its valuable timber, which is very abundant. Mexico abounds in trees useful for their gums and resins, such as the gum elastic, the copal, the gum lac, the liquid amber, and others. There is also a vast multitude of valuable medicinal plants. Among the most valuable trees of the forests are the roble, a species of very hard oak, the holm or French oak, the ash, pine, chestnut, cedar, mahogany, rosewood, and others equally precious. As yet the botany of Mexico is imperfectly understood, a remark which indeed is equally applicable to almost everything else pertaining to the country. The turbulent state of Mexico, since the separation from Spain, and the utter impossibility of traveling through it, every part of it being infested with formidable bands of robbers, have prevented its exploration. According to Clavijero, there are about 1,200 plants peculiar to the soil of Mexico.

ZOOLOGY, ORNITHOLOGY.—The domestic animals introduced by the Spaniards have so much increased, that vast herds range wild through the thinly inhabited regions of the country. The wool of the Mexican sheep is of an inferior quality, but owing more to neglect than to nature. The mule and ass are the most common beasts of burden. Cattle, hogs, horses, mules, asses and goats abound. Deer, hares, rabbits, bears and jaguars are among the wild animals; but carnivorous animals are not numerous. Monstrous serpents and lizards infest the forests of the low regions, rendering the passage through them dangerous. The rivers and lagoons swarm with alligators.

Of birds, there are peacocks, domestic fowls, doves, ducks, quails, partridges, cranes, turkeys, pigeons, and many others. There are about 70 species of birds in Mexico that serve as food for man. Of the birds distinguished for their plumage and notes, there are in Mexico, according to Clavijero, 507 species, some of which are peculiar to Mexico. Of the speaking birds, there are the papagayo and the huacamaya.

MINES.—The mineral resources of Mexico are unquestionably immense. Its mines of gold and silver have always been considered as the chief sources of its wealth. It is highly probable that Mexico is much richer in mineral products than is generally supposed. Like California, the exact extent of its mineral wealth will not be developed until she passes into more enlightened hands. The moment Mexico falls into the hands of the Anglo-Saxon race, every foot of her territory will be explored, and, in all probability, there will be brought to light mineral wonders that will equal, if not eclipse, those of California. Mexico has been deemed the richest country in America, excepting, perhaps, Peru. Before the revolution, (1821,) there were more than 3,000 mines worked in Mexico, producing annually about $21,000,000 in silver and about $2,000,000 in gold; but the overthrow of the viceroyalty was destructive to the mining interests, as to everything else. Some of the mines continued to be only half worked, and others were deserted altogether. Great numbers of the richest mines, which the Spaniards were obliged to abandon, were stopped up with rocks and earth, so that their entrances cannot now be found. Of late years, some of these closed entrances have caved in, disclosing the rich chambers whence the old Spaniards drew their treasures. Thousands now probably remain closed.

Before the war of independence, until 1690, there are no returns from the mint of Mexico showing the amount of the coinage before that time. The mint of the city of Mexico was founded in 1535. Brantz Mayer estimates the entire amount of the coinage, from 1535 to 1843, at $2,068,597,948. This is probably quite too small—it is at least much less than the estimate of other writers. According to M. Lerdo de Tejada, in his late work, *La Republica Mexicana en* 1850, the production of gold and silver in Mexico has now arrived at a grade of prosperity quite unknown at any anterior epoch; and he contends that this prosperity would be much greater, were it not for the high price of mercury.

According to the report made to the Mexican Chambers, in February, 1850, it appears that in the eighteen months from the 1st of January, 1848, to the 30th of June, 1849, the total coinage at the mints, exclusive of that of Hermosillo, was as follows:

	Gold.	Silver.
Chihuahua	—	$332,208
Guadalajara	$21,652	938,890
Guadalupe y Calvo	—	1,045,185
Guanajuato	861,480	10,661,600
Mexico	125,920	2,430,778
San Luis Potosi	—	2,052,268
Zacatecas	—	7,129,920
Durango	25,057	1,483,569
Culiacán	317,307	929,571
	$1,351,416	$27,003,989

To these amounts, the same writer adds $10,000,000, which he estimates to have passed out of the country during the above eighteen months, in the shape of bullion, making the actual product of the mines of Mexico in those eighteen months, $38,000,000. He estimates that from 6 to 6½ millions of gold and silver, in bullion, are exported annually from Mexico, either by permission, or fraudulently.*

MERCURY.—According to the official accounts of the Mexican government in 1844, there were then in Mexico twenty-five worked mines of mercury, and others have since been discovered. The annual product of these mines was estimated, in 1850, at from 2,000 to 2,500 quintals—a quantity far too small to supply the demand of the mines of gold and silver in the republic, which consumes now more than 14,000 quintals annually. The richest quicksilver mine in Mexico is that of Guadalcazar, in San Luis Potosi, which yields more than 1,000 quintals annually.

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* Cuadro Sinoptico de la Republica Mexicana en 1850.

COPPER is abundant in Mexico; but the more profitable business of working the mines of gold and silver, causes copper to be neglected. The richest copper mines now worked are those of Mazapil, which yield from 4 to 6,000 quintals annually. The rich copper mines of Chihuahua have been abandoned in consequence of the depredations of the Indians. Large quantities of copper money have been coined in the mint in the city of Mexico; the total value during the seven years ending with 1837 having amounted to $4,712,000.

IRON.—No iron mines were worked in Mexico previous to 1825. Numerous mines of iron are now worked, but there are no statistics from which one can infer the amount of the products. Iron is very abundant. Tin is also found, and rich lead mines exist, but they are entirely neglected. Zinc, antimony, and arsenic are found, but neither cobalt nor manganese. The carbonate of soda, used for smelting silver ore, is found in great abundance crystallized on the surface of several lakes. Lake Tezcuco, at the city of Mexico, yields large quantities. At low water, during nine months of the dry season, all the shores present a thick incrustation or deposit of carbonate of soda, which is collected by the Indians and sold for soap-making. All the water and soil of Mexico is strongly impregnated with it. "I once rode on the margin of a small lake, when the hoofs of my animal, as it passed over the deposit of carbonate of soda, made sounds resembling that of snow when trodden upon."* Hence the chronic diarrhea that attacks the stranger in Mexico. Rain-water is the only safe drink in that country.

According to Miguel M. Lerdo de Tejada, the annual products of all the mines of Mexico, at the present time, amount to about $26,000,000, all of which, except about $1,000,000, is afforded by the mines of gold and silver; the rest comes from those of iron, copper, mercury, &c. The great scarcity of fuel in Mexico is the cause of the iron mines being neglected. Iron bears a high price in Mexico. In 1846 it was worth twenty-five cents per pound in Zacatecas, and scarce. The duties on iron are high.

The theory of mining is little understood by the Mexicans, notwithstanding all the improvements introduced by the English. They adhere obstinately to the old exploded methods, both of extracting the metal and draining the mines. If the latest improvements were used, mines now abandoned would be worked, and the product would be doubled. The mines of Mexico, which have now been worked near three hundred years, are inexhaustible; and they only need the protection of a good government and the skill of an intelligent and industrious people, to render them productive of the most astonishing quantities of the precious metals.

Before leaving this brief account of the mineral wealth of Mexico, we may state that, of the precious stones, there are found in Mexico —the opal, the turkoise, topaz, agate, amethyst, cornelian, and some beautiful green stones resembling the emerald, but inferior to it. Diamonds are also believed to exist there, from the fact that, at the time of the conquest, the Indians exhibited them; but none have been discovered since. In this connection we may also state that the Gulf of California and the Pacific coasts of Mexico were once rich in pearls, and are probably so now.*

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* Gillam's Mexico, p. 77.

MANUFACTURES.—The principal products of Mexican industry, at the present time, consist in those of brandy, the sugar cane, the *mezcal*, a kind of whisky made from the maguey plant, oil, wine, brandy from the grape, delft-ware, glass, paper, silk, thread, cotton and woolen yarns, and some cotton fabrics.

The chief sugar haciendas, or plantations, are in the states of Vera Cruz, Tobasco, Yucatan, Mexico, Guerrero, Michoacan and Guadalajara. Most of the Mexican sugar planters also distil brandy, it being the more profitable. Of late years some important improvements in the manufacture of these articles have been introduced by the planters.

For the manufacture of oil, there are at present, in the city of Mexico, forty-nine mills, besides those established in Tacubaya, Toluca, Guanajuato and Puebla. In these mills are manufactured not only the olive oil, nearly sufficient for domestic consumption, but also linseed oil, oil of sesamum, almonds, pistachio nuts, and many other kinds of oil.

With respect to the manufacture of brandy and wine, although there are vineyards in many of the states, they are only manufactured in any considerable quantity in the states of Guanahuato, Coahuila, Baja California, Sonora and Chihuahua, which latter state yields annually 600 barrels of brandy, 300 of wine, and 200 bales of raisins.

The manufacture of all kinds of earthenware is carried on in many parts of the republic. The wares manufactured are sufficiently perfect in their kind. The manufacture of a kind of delft-ware is extensively carried on in Puebla, where the manufacture has existed from time immemorial, and at Salamanca. More recently its manufacture has been commenced in the city of Mexico, where a very superior article is produced.

There are in the city of Mexico, at the present time, four glass manufactories, which produce more than sufficient to supply the domestic demand. They manufacture glass of all kinds.

There are also eight paper-mills at present in Mexico, Puebla, and Jalisco, which produce paper of all kinds sufficient to supply the wants of the republic. According to M. Lerdo de Tejada, the Mexican paper is equal to that of foreign manufacture. The specimens which have fallen under our observation do not justify his statement. Most of the Mexican paper is made of cotton and of the filaments of the maguey plant.

In respect to cotton manufactures, besides a considerable number of hand-machines for the manufacture of *rebosos*, (veils worn by all

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* Lerdo de Tejada: La Rep. Mex. en 1850.

Mexican females,) bed-coverings, and other articles of ordinary use, there are at present seventy-two large factories employing machinery, in the district of the city of Mexico, and in the states of Coahuila, Durango, Jalisco, Mexico, Puebla, Queretaro and Vera Cruz. In these factories most of the fabrics consist of coarse goods, though some of them are of a finer class. We have no statistics in regard to the value of the products of these factories. The city of Zamora is noted for the perfection to which it has arrived in the manufacture of *rebosos*, and other articles of silk. There are also manufactured collars, suspenders, gloves, stockings, and other articles of that class. Some of these are manufactured by the convicts in the national prison.

Of woolen manufactories, besides several in different parts of the country for the manufacture of ordinary cloths of a coarse character, there are at present six large factories at the city of Mexico and in the states of Mexico, Queretaro, Zacatecas and Tlaxcala, in which are manufactured cloths, cassimeres, carpets, flannels, and other articles, which compare well with foreign products.

For the manufacture of silk there are established in the city of Mexico, and in Puebla and Guadalajara, upwards of seventy machines, worked by hand, which produce a very superior kind of silk for sewing. There is also a silk establishment in the city of Mexico, using horse-power, and carried on according to the French system. This establishment is capable of producing 100 lbs. daily. The total amount of sewing silk manufactured annually in Mexico is estimated at 40,000 lbs. The only fabrics of silk now manufactured in Mexico are those used by the Mexican ladies for *rebosos*, or veils, and some ribbons.

There are also manufactured in Mexico, buttons, cords, braids, fringes, and many other articles of ornament of cotton, wool, and silk; also gold and silver thread of all kinds, and many other articles of like character, too numerous to mention. M. Lerdo de Tejada estimates the entire value of the manufactures of all kinds in Mexico annually at 80 or $90,000,000. We can hardly credit this; but we give it as we find it in M. Lerdo de Tejada's work, the latest that has been published on Mexico, and approved by the Mexican Society of Geography and Statistics. What we have given above on Mexican manufactures we have translated chiefly from the Spanish of M. Tejada.

ARTS AND TRADES.—These are in a very low condition, though more flourishing than formerly. Printing, lithography, book-binding, drawing, painting, sculpture, engraving on metals, &c., have lately received many improvements in Mexico. The same may be said of the manufacture of furniture and carriages. In the manufacture of gold and silver ornaments of all kinds, the Mexicans exhibit much skill. In iron, brass and tin, also, the Mexicans exhibit skill. Articles of these materials are now manufactured in Mexico, but it is not many years since they were entirely unknown there, except as coming from Europe.

The arts, in Mexico, are chiefly exercised by foreigners, who employ Mexicans as operatives.

For the study of the fine arts, besides the lessons given in them in some of the colleges of the states, there is in the city of Mexico the *San Carlos Academy*, named in honor of its founder, *Carlos* III., an institution, according to M. Tejada, "not only unequaled in all the American continent, but superior to many of those of its class which exist in some of the European capitals."*

In the Academy of San Carlos there are, or were in 1850, 327 students engaged in the study of the mathematics, drawing, painting, sculpture, and engraving, and it sustains, at its own expense, in Europe, five pupils, with the object of rendering them perfect in their studies, so that they may return to Mexico as professors for the San Carlos Academy. Lately the academy has adopted the system of making annually a public exposition of all the works executed by the students. These expositions have developed some notable advances in the fine arts highly creditable to the pupils.

Roads.—These in Mexico are generally in a most wretched condition. There are, in fact, few that merit the name of roads. Of the few that exist, the two from the city of Mexico to Vera Cruz, constructed at the beginning of the present century, are the principal. These for many years have been entirely neglected, and are at present, in many places, almost impassable. Of the roads traversing the country, between the cities and towns of the interior, few of them ever received the slightest improvement from art or labor, except in the construction of a bridge, in places which would otherwise be entirely impassable, or a causeway. Of late the Mexicans have discovered the advantage of good roads, and accordingly they are now making some efforts to open passable routes. In several of the states some roads have recently been made, partly at the expense of the general government. They are now opening a road from San Luis to Tampico, one from Guadalajara to Tepic and San Blas, and improving those leading from the city of Mexico to Queretaro and Acapulco. Since 1843 a rail-road has been in the process of construction from Vera Cruz to San Juan, but it is not yet completed. They continue to work upon it, and at present trains run on the part finished from Vera Cruz as far as the place called El Molino. The road, when completed, will have a length of 29,380 Mexican varas. The Mexican *vara* is about thirty-three inches.

Population.—Although we have no certain data for fixing with exactness the respective number of the different races into which the total population of Mexico is divided, according to the estimates of the best observers who have seen all parts of the republic, we may state that at least three-fifths of the population belong to the aboriginal race, and that of the rest one-third are of pure European blood, and the other two-thirds a mixture of European and Indian, with a small portion exhibiting some African blood. This diversity of races is considered by the Mexicans an obstacle to the prosperity and aggrandizement of the country, since no one of these different classes can ever rule; and besides, society being thus divided into different classes, by origin, education, customs and idioms, each one having different tendencies, never can they become united, so as to labor together for the accomplishment of one and the same end.

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* Un establecimiento no solo sin igual en todo el continente Americano, sino superior à muchos de los que en su clase ecsisten en algunos de los capitales de Europa.

The majority of this population reside in 5,128 cities, towns and villages in the elevated portions of the country, and on the declivities of the Cordilleras. In all parts of Mexico there is observed to be a scarcity of inhabitants, considering the number that the country is capable of supporting. This scarcity is more particularly visible in the low regions, immediately on the coasts, where the dearth of population is such, that there are many places where the foot of man never trod.

From observations made at different periods and in different parts of Mexico with respect to the proportion of the male to the female population, it is found that the number of the females predominates in the more southern portions, and that of the males in the northern. With respect to the number of births and deaths annually, it is found, according to the most reliable statistics, that the number of births in Mexico annually is 1½ per cent. greater than the number of deaths, which gives an annual increase of 114,000 souls. The foreign population of Mexico is estimated, by M. Tejada, at 7,700 persons. All foreigners in Mexico are required by the laws to take out letters of security (cartas de sequridad) annually, but it is known that the greater part of them do not comply with this requirement.

The total population of Mexico, according to the latest authorities on the subject,* is 7,661,919, which is about seven inhabitants to the square mile. The following table, which we take from the work of M. Lerdo de Tejada, is the latest on the subject, and probably the most accurate.

States and Territories.	Population.	Capitals.	Population.
Chihuahua,	147,600	Chihuahua	14,000
Chiapas,	144,070	San Christobel,	6,500
Coahuila,	75,340	Saltillo	19,898
Durango,	162,218	Durango,	22,000
Guanajuato,	713,583	Guanajuato	48,954
Guerrero	270,000	Tixtla	4,500
Jalisco	774,461	Guadalajara	63,000
Mexico	973,697	Toluca	12,000
Michoacan	491,679	Morelia	25,000
Nuevo Leon	133,361	Monterey	13,534
Oajaca	525,101	Oajaca	25,000
Puebla	580,000	Puebla	71,631
Queretaro	184,161	Queretaro	29,702
San Luis Potosi	368,120	San Luis	40,000
Sonora	139,374	Ures	7,000
Sinaloa	160,000	Culiacan	12,000
Tobasco	63,580	San Juan Bautista	4,000
Tamaulipas	100,064	Ciudad Victoria	5,500
Vera Cruz	264,725	Vera Cruz	8,228
Yucatan	680,948	Merida	40,000
Zacatecas	356,024	Zacatecas	25,005
Federal District	200,000	Mexico	170,000
Tlaxcala	80,171	Tlaxcala	3,463
Colima	61,243	Colima	31,774
Lower California	12,000	La Paz	500
Total population	7,661,919		

Baron Humboldt, in 1803, estimated the population of New

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* M. Lerdo Tejada, 1850, and the Sociedad Mexicana de Geografia y Estadistica.

Spain or Mexico, including Upper and Lower California, at 5,837,100, a number, however, which he says is probably much below the existing population. The first census of Mexico was that of Conde de Revellagigedo, by order of the king of Spain, in 1793. The diffent censuses are as follows:

1793,	Revellagigedo	5,270,029
1803,	Humboldt,	5,837,100
1824,	Poinsett	6,500,000
1830,	Burkhardt	7,996,000
1839,	Unknown	7,065,000
1842,	Mexican Government	7,015,509
1850,	M. L. de Tejada	7,661,919

It is probably quite impossible to arrive at the exact population of Mexico, from the fact that every attempt to take a census is considered by the people as a sinister presage of some financial operation—some tax, forced contribution, or conscription. Every head of a family, accordingly, endeavors to diminish the number of individuals of his household. Taking the estimate of Mr. Poinsett, in 1824, as correct, and that of M. Tejada, in 1850, it will be seen that since Mexico has been independent of Spain, its population, in nearly a quarter of a century, has increased only 1,161,919.

Brantz Mayer enumerates the different castes and classes of the population of Mexico as follows:

Indians	4,000,000
Whites	1,000,000
Negroes	6,000
All other castes, such as Zambos, Mestizos, Mulattoes, Quadroons, and Quinteroons,	2,009,509
Total population	7,015,509

The mulattoes and zambos principally reside in the low country, and the whites on the table-lands. The Indians are divided into numerous tribes, speaking upwards of twenty languages totally distinct from each other, and of which fourteen grammars and dictionaries have been published. Their character remains much the same as it is alleged to have been at the time of the conquest. Indolence, blind submission to their superiors, and gross superstition, are as much their characteristics now as formerly. The form of their religion is changed, and that is nearly all. They are scattered over the country as laborers, distributed in villages, or else living in the towns as artisans, workmen, or beggars. In a few instances they have accumulated property, but in general, they are indolent, ignorant, and poverty-stricken. They have undoubtedly degenerated since the days of Montezuma, and under a good government would probably exhibit capabilities of a respectable order. Even the Spanish race have degenerated in Mexico since the conquest, and have carried with them the Indians.

The Indians live in bamboo cabins, and sleep on mats or beds of leaves. Their dress is simply a pair of drawers or a petticoat, and a blanket, which serves as a cloak by day, and a counterpane at night. Each has his horse, or sorry beast, which feeds at large in the open country. A little patch of land about the cabin furnishes them, without much labor, with what bananas, maize, and chili or peppers they can eat. Labor is little thought of, and the Indian spends his time chiefly in sleep, in drinking his *pulque*, or in singing to his wretched mandolin hymns in honor of Notre Dame de Guadalupe, occasionally relieving the monotony of his hours by carrying votive chaplets to deck the altar of his village church.* Thus he passes his life in dreamy indifference, and utterly careless of the ever-reviving *émeutes* which so often disturb the peace of Mexico. The assassinations and robberies, which are constantly occurring on all the public roads, are to him matters of as great indifference as they appear to be to the government itself. They supply him with themes for his daily conversations, and he looks upon them as matters of course, occurring in the due order of Mexican nature. He views them as the mere harmonious workings of life in Mexico, perfectly in keeping with the morality of the government. The Indian feels perfectly secure, there being nothing about him that a bandit would take. His shirt, blanket and guitar, with his sorry pony, are all he has, and all he desires. He has nothing to fear from robbers, for he has nothing to steal. The most striking feature of the Mexican population is the vast disproportion of the lazarones and vagrants. Their numbers are so great as to render them disgustingly prominent. Half-naked, houseless, penniless, and friendless, they are the legitimate fruits of bad government, and of the iniquity of those in power.

Castilian is the language of all the Mexicans descended from the European race. Of the aborigines, there are the descendants of the ancient Toltecs, Chichimecos, Acolhuis, Olmecs, Otomites, Tarascos, Mazahuis, Matlatzincs, Nahuatlacs, and Aztecs, or Mexicans, all preserving their primitive idioms.

COMMERCE.—The exterior commerce of Mexico is limited to the reception of American, European and Asiatic products sufficient for the necessities or luxury of a very small class of the population, for which is given in exchange a large portion of the products of the mines, and some few of the products of the soil. As Mexico has but little save the products of her mines with which to purchase foreign products, and as those mines do not yield more than $26,000,000 annually, it cannot be supposed that the exterior commerce of Mexico exceeds that amount. There are no reliable statistics from which the exact state of the present trade of Mexico may be calculated; but certain it is, that her foreign trade never was in a worse condition than now. Trade is discouraged by excessive duties, dictated by a profound ignorance of the plainest laws and principles of political economy. The total number of Mexican merchant vessels, all of which are small, does not exceed fifty; and of these more than half belong to private individuals in Yucatan.

CURRENCY.—The amount of specie in constant circulation in Mexico is about $100,000,000. The coins of Mexico are of gold, silver, and copper. Of the gold coins, the Mexicans have 16, 8, 4, 2, and 1 dollar pieces. Of silver coins, there is the dollar, half dollar, quarter, and eighth of a dollar, or *real;* also the half real, 6¼ cents, and the quarter of a real, or 3⅛ cents. They have but one copper coin, which is of the value of the eighth of a real, or a little more than a cent and a half.

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* M. Chevalier's Mexico.

EDUCATION.—Education in Mexico is at a very low ebb. "We may be assured," says M. de Tejada, "that at least three-fourths of the inhabitants do not know that there is such a thing as an *Abecedario* in the world." Still, Mexico is not entirely destitute of schools; and of late years some progress has been made in public education. Some of the states have established primary schools for the education of the poor, and many private schools have been opened in all places where the population is dense. It is quite impossible to say how many pupils receive instruction in these schools. The number is probably small. In the city of Mexico, according to M. de Tejada, there are 129 of these primary schools, containing 7,151 pupils of both sexes. This is more than four per cent. of the whole population of the city.

The other educational establishments of Mexico are as follows:—

1. Seminaries sustained and directed by the clergy.
2. National colleges, in the city of Mexico, sustained in part by their own funds, and in part by those of the general government.
3. Colleges and institutes in the states, sustained by the funds of the states.

Of the above educational establishments, there are ten of the first class, distributed in the capitals of the several bishoprics. In these are taught Latin, philosophy, canon law, theology, and every thing pertaining to the Church; besides, there are in some of them chairs of natural and international law, civil law, and of the French and English languages. According to the returns of the Minister of Justice for 1850, there were then in these colleges 3,024 students, not including Sonora, for which there were no returns.

Of the second class of colleges, all in the city of Mexico, there are six, as follows: College of San Ildefonso, San Gregorio, San Juan de Letrau, the School of Medicine, the College of Mining, and the Military College.

In the first two of these colleges are taught grammar, Castilian, French, English and Latin languages, philosophy, ideology, logic, metaphysics, ethics, mathematics, drawing, elementary physics, chronology, cosmography, geography, political economy; also a course of jurisprudence, comprehending natural law, law of nations, public law, principles of legislation, and the elements of Roman, civil, criminal, and canonical law; also a course of ecclesiastical sciences, including ecclesiastical history, sacred geography, the Holy Scriptures, theology, study of the Fathers, and ecclesiastical discipline; also a course of humanities, embracing the general and particular history of Mexico, the reading and analysis of ancient and modern classics, the formation of critical compositions on the same; also literary exercises on all subjects, the whole conformably to the general plan of studies contained in the law of the 18th of August, 1843.

In the College of San Juan de Letrau there is the same course, omitting the ecclesiastical sciences. In the College of San Gregorio are chairs of Greek and Mexican, and of vocal and instrumental music.

In the School of Medicine are chairs of physics, chemistry, anatomy, physiology, pathology, internal and external, materia medica, clinics, surgical operations, obstetrics, legal medicine, and pharmacy.

In the College of Mining are taught Castilian, French, English and German, ideology, logic, drawing, mathematics, physics, mechanics applied to mines, chemistry, mineralogy, geology, cosmography, geodesy, uranography, geography, botany and zoology.

In the Military College are taught infantry and cavalry tactics, horsemanship, general management of an army, &c. &c.; also mathematics, topography, analytical mechanics, experimental physics, fortification, permanent and temporary, attack and defence of places, military reconnoissances, castrametation, principles of artillery, astronomical, political and historical geography, linear drawing of machines and of architecture, and the French and English languages. The number of students in these six metropolitan colleges was, in 1850, 1506.

Of the several state colleges of Mexico, sustained by the funds of the individual states, there are twenty, including six preparatory schools. There are besides these some other colleges in different parts of the republic, of which we have no exact information. In all of these the course of study is nearly the same as that of the other colleges.

Besides these, there are in Mexico several literary and scientific academies, as follows: In the city of Mexico, the *Sociedad Mexicana de Geografia y Estadistica*, the *Liceo de Hidalgo*, and the *Academia Literaria* of San Juan de Letrau; in Guadalajara, the *Sociedad Filoiatrica*, the *Falange de Estudio*; in Yucatan, the *Academia de Ciencias y Literatura*; also two institutions, one in Queretaro and the other in Morelia, the names of which we are unable to give.

LIBRARIES.—There are three public libraries in the city of Mexico, namely, that of the *Cathedral*, which contains upwards of 13,000 printed volumes and manuscripts; that of the *Univercidad*, which contains over 9,000 volumes, and that of *San Gregorio*, with more than 4,000 volumes.

Besides these, there are other libraries and reading rooms belonging to private individuals, which are accessible only to persons who are subscribers. In Puebla there is a public library belonging to that state, which has been recently enlarged by the addition of the great library which belonged to the late Bishop Vazquez.

Though the number of public libraries in the republic is small, the same cannot be said of those of private individuals. Of these there is a large number, containing from 200 to 1,000 volumes. Of all Spanish America there is no nation, says M. de Tejada, in which are found so many and so rich collections of books and instruments for the study of the sciences, as those which exist in the republic of Mexico. Of the college libraries, that of San Juan de Letrau contains from 11 to 12,000 volumes; and that of the college of San Ildefonso, 8,361 volumes.

Periodicals.—The number of political and literary periodicals published in the Republic of Mexico, in 1850, was fifty-four, there being eleven in the Federal District, at Puebla two, Mexico two, Queretaro one, Oajaca six, Chiapas one, Tobasco one, Yucatan five, Vera Cruz five, Tamaulipas three, San Luis Potosi two, Zacatecas one, Jalisco three, Guanajuato two, Nueva Leon two, Coahuila one, Chihuahua one, Durango one, Sonora one, Sinaloa one, Michoacan one, and Guerrero one.

National Museum.—The museum of this name, in the University of the city of Mexico, was founded in 1822, and occupies at present two large halls and a part of the court of the University building. It has of late years been entirely neglected. It contains some very valuable and curious collections, but they are all in the greatest confusion for the want of some competent hand to classify and arrange them. Among the antiquities, consisting of statues, armor, relievos, ornaments, casts, instruments of music and war, which have been extracted from excavations, there are, besides, great numbers of manuscripts in hieroglyphic characters anterior to the conquest, worthy of the attention of antiquaries. Among the objects of the fine arts, worthy of notice, is the equestrian statue of Charles IV., which elicits the admiration and praise of all travelers, and reflects the highest credit on Mexican sculpture. It is said to have been originally designed and cast by Tolsa, a Mexican statuary; but some contend that it is the workmanship of an Italian artist. The statue and pedestal measure, in height, twenty-three feet. Competent judges pronounce it to be as symmetrical and perfect as any equestrian statue to be found in any country. In the court are to be seen the celebrated Sacrificial Stone of Montezuma, together with many of his gods, thrown together in heaps, and in strange confusion. The armor of Cortes is also exhibited.[*]

The Clergy.—According to the third article of the Constitution of the Mexican Republic, "the religion of the Mexican nation *is and shall be perpetually* the Roman Catholic Apostolic. The nation protects it by wise and just laws, and *prohibits* the exercise of any other whatsoever."[†] The ecclesiastical government of Mexico consists of an archbishop and eleven bishops. These eleven dioceses contain 184 prebends. The total number of parishes in the republic is 1,229, with 3,223 ecclesiastics. There are, besides, 146 convents of monks, fifty-nine nunneries, and eight colleges of the *Propaganda Fide*. Of the monks there are 1,139 individuals; in the nunneries there are 3,160 inmates; and in the Colegios de Propaganda Fide there are 238 individuals.

Revenues of the Clergy.—The general revenues destined for the support of the clergy and of public worship in the republic are divided into four great classes; first, those for the bishops and prebendaries who form the chapters of the respective cathedrals; second, those which pertain to the special ecclesiastics or chaplains; third, those of the curates and vicars; and fourth, those of the different religious communities of both sexes.

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[*] See Gillam's Mexico, p. 94.

[†] "La religion de la nacion Mexicana *es y será perpétuamente* la catolica apostolica Romana. La nacion la proteje por leyes sabías y justas, y prohibe el ejercicio de cualquiera otra.

The first are composed principally of the imposts known under the name of "*Diezmos y Primicias*," or Tithes and First Fruits, which were very considerable in former times, since they consisted of the tenth part of all the fruits which were gathered from the soil of the republic, and of the firstlings of the flocks; but of late this revenue has much fallen off, since by a law of the 27th of October, 1833, the people are liberated from the payment of this contribution. Nevertheless, as there are still many persons who, from motives of conscience, or for other reasons, continue to pay it, the revenue derived from this source is very considerable. This part of the clergy also receive the interest on those sums of money which have been left by devout persons to pay for the performance annually of certain religious solemnities called anniversaries. The collegiate church of *Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe* has also two *lotteries!* which draw monthly, with a capital of $30,000 for each drawing; also some annuities and other capital secured to it by the government. The idea of supporting religion and churches by means of lotteries is peculiar, we believe, to Mexico; and while it will shock the Christian sensibilities of enlightened Christendom, it cannot fail to convey a correct idea of the degradation into which Mexico, its priests, its religion and its churches have fallen. We feel assured, that none of our enlightened citizens of the Catholic Church in this country will countenance the disgrace, degradation, and unchristian system which the church in Mexico has assumed. We believe, indeed, that the Catholic world, in general, disavow the perversions of the Mexican church. The idle fable of *Our Lady of Guadalupe*, which holds so important a place in the Mexican church, is not generally admitted by the Catholics out of Mexico. It is said, that on one of the festival occasions in honor of *Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe*, a priest from Old-Spain was requested to deliver a sermon, and he refused, saying that the Pope had never recognized the miracle of Guadalupe.

The special ecclesiastics, or chaplains, are sustained by the proceeds of certain funds donated by religious individuals, each chaplaincy being endowed with the sum of $3,000, the interest of which, together with the proceeds of charity and receipts for masses, constitute their support.

The revenue of the curates consists in parochial fees for baptisms, marriages and interments; in fees collected for responses chanted for the dead, and for other religious solemnities performed at the expense of those ordering them; and lastly, in the profits derived from the sale of *novenas*, (acts of devotion of nine days' continuance;) *medallas*, (medals of saints blessed by the Pope;) scapularies, or blessed badges of peculiar veneration for the Virgin Mary; *medidas de santos*, (ribbons of the exact length of some saint or of his statue, and on which is stamped his name;) wax and other objects which they furnish their parishioners.

The revenue of the monks is derived from fees for masses, interments, and religious solemnities in the churches, and from the products of their property. The nuns also live upon the rents of the large estates they possess, and which they have acquired slowly in a long lapse of time, with the exception of two or three convents, which do not possess property, and live entirely on charity.

Besides the above-mentioned revenues pertaining to the clergy, there are in the cathedrals and parishes other revenues, which proceed from certain donations made to defray all expenses necessary for the service of the church.

Although the want of publicity, generally observed in the management of the property and revenues of the clergy, renders it impossible to fix exactly the value of them, still we may arrive at it approximatively, by taking as a basis those data which are public, such as the total value of the products of agriculture; the annual movement of the population, as exhibited by the births, marriages and deaths; and finally, the amounts given by custom by the greater part of the inhabitants. By observing attentively these data, one may be assured, without fear of much error, that the total amount of what the clergy at present collect, in all parts of the republic, for rents, tithes, parochial fees, alms, ecclesiastical ceremonies, and the sale of different objects of devotion, amounts at least to from eight to $10,000,000 annually.

As to the property pertaining to a part of the clergy above, some writers have pretended to fix it at a half of all the real estate of the nation, and others to a third part; but no great credit can be given to these statements, since they are based on no certain data. But we may be assured that the total amount of the property of the clergy rises to an enormous sum, in spite of the great diminution it is said to have suffered of late years. In the federal district of Mexico alone, the property of which is estimated at not less than $50,000,000, more than half of it belongs to the clergy. Uniting the products of these estates to the tithes, parochial fees, &c., and we may be assured that the total revenues of the clergy of Mexico amount to eighteen or $20,000,000 annually.*

Such is the Mexican account of their own clergy, as given by M. Lerdo de Tejada, and approved by the Mexican Society of Geography and Statistics.

The Mexican clergy, as a class, are generally well-educated, generous, benevolent and polite. Some of them are said to be given to tippling, gambling, and other vices; "but," says Mr. Gillam, "these vices are not prevalent among all the clergy of Mexico, for perhaps there exists as much piety in some few of them as in any of those of other denominations." As much has been said and written *against* the Mexican clergy, we shall endeavor to do them justice by stating what we know *for* them, preferring always to err in the omission rather of evil reports than in that of good ones. Brantz Mayer admits that there are "abuses in the body of the clergy—that many of its members were corrupt, idle, ignorant and vicious, and that it enjoys large revenues;" but he adds, "it would be unjust to leave the impression that the ministers of this church have been solely engaged in enriching themselves and scandalizing the cause of true faith, as has been so often proclaimed by European travelers. Although many of them are unworthy persons, and notwithstanding their rites and ceremonies are often rather accommodated to a population scarcely emerged from the forests than to intellectual man; yet the wealth of the church has not been at all times devoted to base and sordid purposes, or used to corrupt its possessors and the people. Throughout the republic no persons have been more universally the agents of charity and ministers of mercy than the rural clergy. Their houses have been the hospitable retreats of every traveler. Upon all occasions they constituted themselves the defenders of the Indians, and contributed toward the maintenance of institutions of benevolence. They have interposed in all attempts at persecution; and, whenever the people were menaced with injustice, stood forth the champions of their outraged rights. These virtues and devotions have served to fix the whole priesthood deeply in the hearts of the masses, and to attach the poor to their persons and enlist them in defence of their property."[*]

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* Cuadro Sinoptico de la Republica Mexicana, por M. Tejada.

The same author estimates the nuns, monks, and secular clergy of Mexico at 7,200, and sums up the church estates as follows:

Real property in town and country	$18,000,000
Churches, houses, convents, curates, dwellings, furniture, jewels, precious vessels, &c	52,000,000
Floating capital, with other funds, and the capital which is required to produce the sum received by them annually in alms	20,000,000
	$90,000,000

He thinks that $100,000,000 is nearer the truth, which is $88,000,000 less than it was before the war of independence, at which time the ecclesiastics numbered from 10 to 13,000. The immense wealth of the church at that time gave it great influence, and it was the policy of the crown of Spain to cherish it. The rights of primogeniture forced the higher orders of the people to devote their younger sons to the church, for whom were secured splendid establishments. All the lucrative and easy benefices were given them. The greater portion of the more elevated of the Mexican ecclesiastics were persons of high birth or influential connections.[†] The revolution came; the rights of primogeniture were swept away; and large numbers of the clergy left the country, carrying away with them all the wealth they could.

THE MEXICAN GOVERNMENT.—This is, as established by the present constitution, representative, popular and federal. It is, like that of the United States, divided into three parts, legislative, executive and judicial. The *legislative power* is deposited in a General Congress, divided into two chambers, the one of senators and the other of deputies. The deputies are chosen by the people, one for every 50,000 inhabitants, every fraction over 25,000 also giving one deputy. They are elected every two years. The present number of deputies is 144. The Senate is composed of two senators from each state chosen by the people; two chosen by the Federal District; and a number equal to that of the states chosen by the Senate, the Supreme Court of Justice, and by the Chamber of Deputies, the latter deciding the election in case of the candidate not receiving a majority of all the votes. One-third of the senators go out of office every two years. A *quorum* in either chamber is one more than half of all the members. There are now sixty-six senators.

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[*] Brantz Mayer, Mexico, p. 327.

[†] Ibid. p. 329.

The *executive power* consists of a president and four secretaries, one of Interior and Exterior Relations; one of Justice and Ecclesiastical Affairs; one of the Treasury, and one of War and Marine. The president is elected every four years, and is not eligible until after a lapse of four years after going out of office.

The *judicial power* resides in a Supreme Court of Justice, and in circuit and district tribunals. The Supreme Court is divided into three tribunals embracing eleven judges and a fiscal. For civil and criminal cases in the first instance, there are judges and alcaldes.

STATE GOVERNMENTS.—The government of each state, like that of the general government, is divided into three branches, the legislative, executive, and the judicial. The government of the territories resides in a chief dependent on the general government. The legislative power of the territories resides in a deputation elected by the people, and justice is administered by subaltern tribunals. The states and territories are divided into districts, departments, and sub-departments, which are under the charge of prefects and sub-prefects, appointed by the governors of the respective states. In all places of much population there are *ayuntamientos*, or municipal bodies, having supreme control over all municipal affairs, and a jurisdiction extending to all the neighboring villages and settlements.

The qualifications for citizenship are nearly the same as in the United States. The rights of citizens are also nearly the same. Soldiers and ecclesiastics have the right of being tried by their own tribunals, composed of individuals of their own respective classes. The only religion tolerated is the Catholic. This is the only anti-republican feature of the Mexican Constitution.

THE ARMY.—The active armed force of Mexico, in 1850, was as follows:

Infantry of the line	3,632	men.
Cavalry " "	1,507	"
Artillery	658	"
Active Militia	232	"
Sappers and Miners	303	"
Soldiers at Military Stations	1,282	"
National Guard	1,295	"
Total	8,909	men.

The number of officers of all grades over these 8,909 men, and not included in that number, is 520. The total number of generals, chiefs, and officials of the army in actual service, is 259. The number of officers not on duty is 1,806; and the number of privates off duty is 763. The number of widows, orphans, and soldiers enjoying a pension, is 1,235.

Navy.—This consists of only one vessel—the schooner Vera Cruz.

Fortresses and Fortified Places.—There are three fortresses, the Castle of San Juan de Ulloa, of San Carlos de Perote, and that of San Diego de Acapulco. Although these fortresses are constructed with the greatest strength, the neglect into which they have been suffered to fall, for many years past, particularly the first and last above mentioned, is such that, at present, they are so dilapidated, that a million of dollars would not suffice to repair that of San Juan de Ulloa alone. The Castle of Acapulco mounts 21 pieces of artillery of various calibre; that of Perote, 16; and that of San Juan de Ulloa, 132 guns.

The fortified places are Vera Cruz and Campeche, both of which are surrounded with walls, with some small ramparts for artillery. The fortification of Campeche is much superior to that of Vera Cruz, on account of the greater elevation and thickness of the walls. The fortifications of Vera Cruz mount 109 pieces of artillery of various calibre; and those of Campeche 158. A part of the artillery at Ulloa, Campeche, Acapulco and Perote is dismounted.

National Guard.—The law in Mexico establishing a national guard is, as yet, only partially carried into effect, owing to the general state of society, and the tottering condition of the government. The total number of men enrolled in the national guard amounted, in 1850, to about 60,000 men. We have nothing later.

Annual Expenses of the General Government.—According to the official reports for 1850, the expenses for that year were as follows:

Department of War and Marine	$6,280,449
" of Relations	870,004
" of Justice	426,220
Other expenses of government	1,689,154
Annual interest on the external debt of $51,208,250, at 5 per cent	2,560,412
Annual interest on that part of the internal debt which pays interest, and which has funds assigned for its payment, not including the *creditos Mineria*	1,300,000
	13,126,239
There should be added to this the interest on the debt anterior to the war of independence, which is accumulating at the rate of from 5 to 6 per cent. annually, making near	700,000
Total annual expenses	$13,826,239

National Debt.—The general national debt of Mexico amounts to $133,524,242, and is divided as follows:

External debt	$51,208,250
Interest in arrears	6,700,000
Total external debt	$57,908,250
Internal debt	75,615,992
Total national debt	$133,524,242

The debt anterior to the war of independence amounts to $30,000,000, bearing from 5 to 6 per cent. interest. It is included above in the internal debt. It will be seen by the above, that the annual interest on the national debt amounts to near $4,000,000. The national debt of Mexico is rapidly increasing. In 1843, according to Brantz Mayer, it was only $84,150,000. It is now $133,524,242, according to the best Mexican authorities; and the prospect of reducing the principal is now more gloomy than ever. In all probability Mexico was never so completely prostrated as at present.

One of the largest items in the internal debt of Mexico is one of $10,000,000, due to civil and military *employés* of the government. The present number of this class is 3,947 individuals, a large number of whom consists of mere drones, feeding out of the national treasury as the occupants of sinecures. In 1843 the amount paid to officers of the army alone, who are on leave of absence, or retired, was $747,158.

REVENUES OF THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT.—These proceed almost entirely from direct imposts; and it is not possible to fix the exact annual amount of them, owing to fluctuations. According to the latest statistics the revenues for 1850 were as follows:

Importation duties	$4,000,000
Exportation duties	450,000
Tonnage duties	60,000
Extra importation duties	140,000
Duties on sales of merchandise	210,000
Entrance duties	500,000
Duties on moneys imported	300,000
Contingents of the states	1,011,000
Tobacco revenues	650,000
Naipes (playing cards)	20,000
Post offices	90,000
Direct contributions	450,000
Duty on the sale of funds	50,000
Mints	100,000
National Lottery	60,000
Stamped paper	150,000
Montepios (Monto de Pieté, pawnbrokery)	30,000
Duties on assays of silver in the districts and territories, imposts on inheritances, right of passage, letters of security, ships' papers, passports, and from other minor sources.	229,000
Total revenues for 1850	$8,500,000

Comparing this with the annual expenses, it is readily seen that there is an annual deficit of the public treasury of about $5,000,000.

The annual total expense of all the individual states of the Mexican Republic amounts to about $5,000,000. In 1850 it was $5,156,859, including the *contingente* paid to the general government. The revenues of the several states arise from direct and indirect taxation—the first on persons, property and professions; and the second on the products of agriculture and of domestic and foreign industry, inheritances, sales of real estate, and the exploitation of the mines. Although these revenues would be sufficient to cover the expenses of the states, the want of plan in collecting them, and above all, the want of statistics, causes them to fall far short of what they would be if conducted by intelligent hands. Gross ignorance, avarice, and want of integrity in the rulers of Mexico, are the sole causes of her present ruined condition. In the first place, they do not know how to rule; and in the second, they have not the honesty to enable them to make the best use of what little knowledge they possess. And so they go on declining. Mexico, with all the natural means of being the richest country in the world, is actually the poorest—a land of beggars and robbers. It would be a blessing to Mexico if some enlightened nation would conquer it—an easy task just now—and spread over it enlightened laws and manners. It is the only way in which Mexico can ever be regenerated. War is a blessing sometimes.

The states of Mexico and Oajaca are the only ones almost whose revenues are so managed as to meet their expenses. All the others exhibit an annual deficit, amounting in some of them to one-third.

We are obliged to curtail greatly this paper for the want of space. We did intend to give some notices of the character of all classes of the Mexican population; but to do that subject justice, an elaborate paper alone would not suffice. Undoubtedly, in many instances, great injustice has been done to the Mexican character by foreign writers; but after an extensive examination of the subject, we fear that even strict justice would develope a picture sufficiently dark and revolting to any enlightened Christian mind. The political history of Mexico is marked, undoubtedly, with a degree of corruption in its rulers that could find no parallel in the world's history. Plunder of the people and of the public treasuries has ever been, and still continues to be in Mexico, the order of the day. No wonder that highway robberies there are of daily occurrence, when more extensive robberies still are carried on in high places. The government has, indeed, been frequently charged with conniving at highway robberies, and there is certainly much ground for such charges. No attempts are made to suppress robberies, although the highways are so infested with robbers that no one can travel in safety. For this scandalous and murderous state of things the government is certainly responsible, inasmuch as it might remedy the evil *if it would.* We could fill the Review with details on this subject, showing the utter corruption and guilt of the rulers of Mexico; but we must, for the present, omit any further notice of the subject. Our Mexican neighbors are a scandal, and deserve an awful chastisement.

ART. II.—TAXATION AND REVENUES—ANCIENT AND MODERN.

PART II.—OF THE ROMANS.

There were three distinct forms of government known at Rome, at different periods: the regal, the consular, and the imperial.

Commencing seven hundred and fifty-four years anterior to the Christian era, and embracing a cycle of two hundred and forty-four years, the history of the first is mingled with the shadows and uncertainties of fable and tradition. Arms and agriculture—the characteristic pursuits of rude and nomadic ages—were congenial to the habits and inclinations of the earlier Romans. Every eighth person, it has been estimated, was trained to war. Valor and prowess were the striking traits which won applause or conferred distinction. These predilections gave coloring to all the deliberations connected with affairs of state, and, as a consequence, martial exercises and discipline, warlike alliances and defences, camps and conquests, strategy and surprises, the pursuit and the retreat, the battle and the siege, received more of public attention than laws or letters, politics or polemics. Still, useful arts, suited to meliorate the condition of private life, and improvements tending to make the government better, more secure, and more permanent, were not wholly neglected. A regular form of religious worship was established; a mode for the computation of time was fixed; the coinage of money was introduced; the line between the plebeian and patrician orders was distinctly marked; and the senate, so long and so deservedly respected for its dignity, wisdom and patriotism, was constituted into a deliberative assembly. In the year 197, from the foundation of the city, the census was instituted. This was a numbering of the people, with the valuation of their fortunes. All the citizens, both within and without the city, were compelled, under the obligation of an oath, to make a true estimate, and to return the same, of their entire estates; to tell the place of their abode, the names of their wives and children, and the number of their slaves and freedmen. A neglect of this duty, or a false compliance with it, rendered the delinquents liable to a confiscation of their goods, and to be themselves sold into slavery. According to the valuation of their estates, the citizens were divided into six classes, and each class was subdivided into centuries. Thus it was understood what burdens devolved upon each, both in peace and war, since those burdens were in proportion to property. The richest class being entitled to the greatest number of votes in the Comitia, were likewise compelled to furnish the largest quota of taxes and soldiers. The value of the taxes thus assessed, either singly or in the aggregate, is unknown; but if Livy is to be credited, that eighty thousand persons, able to bear arms, were rated at the first taking of the census, and that eighty centuries were created of persons, whose fortunes were equal to fifteen hundred dollars, besides that large number whose estates were estimated below that sum, it is evident a considerable income must have been derived to the state, even at a very reduced per centage upon each citizen and each estate. There were likewise certain revenues derived from duties and imposts; from the public estates, of which the Campus Martius, at that period, was one; from the sacred groves, and from fines and confiscations, arising from punishments, commutation, voluntary abjuration, or the estates of deceased foreigners—(peregrini.)

The consular government, which succeeded upon the overthrow of the last of the Tarquins, continued for the long space of 479 years. This new form of exercising the executive authority, in conjunction with the Senate and the Comitia, or assemblies of the people, infused fresh vigor into the Roman constitution—made the government eminently practical, and opened wide the pathway to every citizen who aspired to glory or renown, either in the conduct of armies, or in the administration of civil affairs. Intellect and ambition, valor and enterprise, found an arena worthy of the greatest deeds, and filled with the mightiest conflicts of mind and of nations. No age and no country has presented such a succession of brilliant men, or such an unceasing stream of stirring events, as are chronicled in the history of the Roman Republic.

The duty of taking the census, which before had been performed by the kings, now devolved upon the consuls. For a period of 66 years, no other than the consuls had the power to take the census. But in the foreign wars in which Rome was engaged—in the commotions which sometimes threatened the existence of the republic—in the perpetual broils between the senate and the people, the patricians and the plebeians, the consuls and the tribunes, and in the disturbances among the allies and the provinces—the census, which according to its institution, was to be made at intervals of every five years, was oftentimes neglected. This rendered the taxes unequal, and frequently oppressive; for, of necessity, the fortunes of some would diminish, whilst those of the more thrifty would increase, and both would be taxed upon the terms at which their fortunes had last been rated, and without regard to present valuation. A change, too, was perpetually ensuing in the rated population itself, by death, enlistment, removal or exemption from burdens as a reward for public services; whilst strangers who had become residents, slaves who had recovered freedom, or youths who had grown to manhood, would pay nothing into the treasury until rated. After a neglect for seventeen years to hold a census, A. U. 312, a new office, clothed with the amplest powers in relation to the revenues, was established. The two magistrates which were thus created were termed *censors*. All the orders of the state, within the limit of their peculiar duties, were subject to them; and such was the estimation in which the censorship was held, that some of the ancient writers have pronounced it the summit of all human preferment.

The censors performed the census in the *villa publica*, on the Campus Martius, or field of Mars. Seated in their curule chairs, and surrounded by a numerous train of clerks and subordinate officers, the citizens were summoned before them by a herald, and proceeded severally to enrol their names, and to give an account of their fortunes; except that ready money, debts, property in the *ager publicus*, or in the provinces, were not taken into account. Having accomplished this, the censors proceeded next to declare the tax upon such property and persons as they thought proper, and the amount and the manner of the levy. The exercise of this important trust was committed to the wisdom, caprice or vigilance of the two censors then in office; who, not being bound by the action of their predecessors, introduced such changes and innovations as the wants of the treasury required, or their own judgments might dictate. Hence there was neither stability nor uniformity in the administration of the revenue, and hence many estates and many sorts of property were entirely exempt from taxation; whilst others were arbitrarily assessed at many times their estimated value. It is worthy of remark here, that in the amount of these taxes, and in the mode of their collection, a singular indifference, or confidence, or acquiescence, is apparent in the conduct of the Roman people. At no time did they, who generally exhibited such fierce jealousy of their rights, seem to regard taxation as dependent upon their will, or the business concerning it as requiring their attention, or as essential to their freedom. The senate, it is true, were invested with the supreme authority in the management of affairs connected with the finances, and occasionally exercised the prerogative of moderating the terms imposed by the censors, when they were excessive; yet, with perhaps a few exceptions, they, like the Comitia, were content to leave the responsibility with the censors, without murmuring or interference. Originally all the citizens were enrolled in the city, but when the rights of isopolity, municipia and coloniæ were merged, throughout Italy, into the more comprehensive privileges of general citizenship, the lists were made at the points of residence, and forwarded to the censors at Rome.

The sources from whence the ordinary revenues of Rome were usually derived, may be separated into three divisions: the property tax, the vectigal and the tribute.

The *first* was a contribution exacted from each citizen, according to his landed property, and the rest of his *res mancipi*, with the single exemption of lands in Italy. This tax was paid in money to the quæstors, officers to whom belonged the collection and management of the public funds in the city and in all the provinces. When collected, it was deposited in the ærarium or treasury, situated in the Temple of Saturn, or paid directly to the army, when so required. From the scanty memorials extant upon this interesting subject, it is not certainly known what were the annual proceeds of the income arising from the property tax. It is, however, certain—and from that a fair inference may be drawn—that not far from this period, individual and national wealth were augmented to an unprecedented degree. Nearly a century before, Appius Claudius, upon his removal to Rome, had in his family, as clients and slaves, full 5,000 persons, who had lands assigned them across the Arno. The Fabian family, on an occasion of pressing moment, volunteered to take the war against the Veii into their own hands, and actually carried on the same for nearly two years with various success.' At a later date, C. C. Claudius Isodorus left by his will 4,116 slaves, 3,600 yoke of oxen, and 257,000 of other cattle. Agriculture, always a favorite pursuit, was highly esteemed for its profits and its pleasures by farmers of lesser as well as larger estate. The former cultivated lands with their own hands, and the latter with slaves, upon principles which tended to develop and to retain the utmost capacity of the soil, and with implements of the most approved construction. Their crops of wheat, barley, oats, turnips and the various kinds of pulse; of hay, of flax, and of the willow for baskets and brooms; of the vine, and of wool, yielded a liberal return for the labor bestowed. Such in fact was the diligent cultivation of the ground, that the importation of corn was then unknown. The *vectigal*, which strictly means a toll or subsidy, seems to have been used as a term by which to distinguish, though not without obscurity, every species of tax not embraced in the direct property tax, or tribute. The rates, after having been fixed by the censors, were farmed out to the highest bidder upon a lease of five years. The bidding took place in the forum—the conditions having been previously read to the assembled people. Those who leased or farmed them were called *publicani*, and were usually Roman knights, who associated together in the larger and more important contracts, to make the required advances or securities with less difficulty. Under these publicani were associated a swarm of subalterns, who collected such of the vectigal as belonged to the provinces. These inferior collectors are the publicans so often mentioned in the New Testament. They were exceedingly heartless and rapacious, and generally amassed enormous fortunes.

First in importance of the vectigalia were the duties on Imports and Exports. A leading feature of the system in connection with these, was the pre-payment of duties on goods imported before they were landed, and on those exported before embarkation. The duty, too, was levied according to a per centage on the value, and not by any fixed table. Commercial pursuits were never esteemed nor encouraged among the Romans as an honorable avocation. The patricians were excluded from trades of skill, as well as of barter, by law, and the plebeians engaged in them, if at all, merely for the sake of present gain. No better commentary can be given of this apathy and neglect of commerce than a glance at their monetary regulations. During four hundred and eighty-four years, their only currency consisted in pieces of brass stamped with the image of some domestic animal. Then silver was coined, and sixty-two years later, gold. The mint from which the coinage issued, was situated in the Temple of Juno-Moneta—whence money; and was under the superintendance of the *Triumviri Monetales*. Bankers, brokers, and usurers transacted the business of exchange—of loaning and borrowing money, and of making remittances to distant countries. The interest which the law allowed upon loaned money or other debts, varied at different periods from six to twelve per cent., though double, and even five times those sums was occasionally demanded and paid. Nearly all the monetary transactions of the wealthier classes were carried on through the aid and intervention of bankers, who kept the account-books of debtor and creditor with exceeding care and exactness.

With the increase of wealth and population, necessity and the demands of luxury invited and gradually extended various branches of trade in the direction of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean Seas. Treaties of amity and commerce were formed with some of the states of the East, and with the Carthaginians, at that time the most opulent, powerful and enterprising of all the commercial nations.

Second—On Mines. Of these, the principal were the gold and silver mines of Spain. The Phœnicians and Carthaginians had successively worked them with immense profits; but it was reserved for the avarice and industry of the Romans, by ingenious expedients and incredible labor, to tear from the bowels of the earth the greatest rewards.

Thousands of the native population, condemned to captivity, plied in the mines with no respite, either by day or night—under the constant infliction of the lash—surrounded by water, and in dark and deep pits. Twenty thousand pounds weight in gold was the annual product of Asturia, Gallacia and Lusitania; and four thousand dollars daily enriched the Roman coffers from the mines of Carthagena. Numberless multitudes of slaves perished in those frightful depths.

Third—On Salt. The Romans placed a high value on salt. It was always used in sacrifices, and was the chief thing eaten with bread and cheese. Placing salt before a stranger, was reckoned a symbol of friendship, and it was an evil omen to spill it at table. In the earliest times it was subject to a tax; but shortly after the expulsion of the kings, by an edict of the senate, individuals were deprived of the privilege of selling it, whilst the government itself undertook its exclusive management. Subsequently, upon the conquest of Macedonia, a country famed for its productions in salt, as well as of the precious metals, a new tax was introduced, and a further importation of salt into that country prohibited, in order to extend, and to give encouragement to the working of the salt-pits.

Fourth—On Bridges and Roads. Thirty-one great roads centered in Rome. These roads, issuing from the city, and crossing the Tiber upon eight different bridges, pervaded the provinces, and were terminated only by the distant frontiers of the empire. The most ancient and the most celebrated of these roads was the Appian way, which extended from Rome to Capua, thence to Beneventum, and afterwards to Brundusium, some three hundred miles. Passing through the Pontine marshes, its projector, Appius Claudius, designed it for the double purpose of transportation and of drainage. In width, it extended from eighteen to twenty-one feet; was raised in the centre by three distinct layers of materials—first with stones and mingled cement; then with gravel and sand; and lastly with hard hexagonal stones, so nicely and exactly fitted together as to give the appearance of one solid piece. On either side of this, and other great roads, ways were likewise constructed for foot-passengers, protected and marked by curbs. Arches and bridges spanned the broadest and most rapid streams, and mountains and other intervening obstacles were leveled without regard to cost, labor or difficulties. Milestones accurately divided the distance between one city and another, and at smaller distances stones were placed for travelers to rest on, and to assist those who alighted to remount their horses. In later times, at convenient points, inns were erected for the accommodation of wayfarers, and post-houses at every five or six miles, supplied with horses, for the speedy transmission of intelligence. Carriages and other vehicles loaded with merchandise, and perhaps travelers, passing along these highways, were compelled to pay a toll. Men of the highest dignity alone were entrusted with the charge of the public ways.

Fifth.—On Aqueducts. Amongst the most wonderful works of antiquity, may be justly reckoned the aqueducts of Rome. These were carried to a point of perfection and magnificence unequaled by any similar architecture in modern times. Commencing thirty, forty, and even sixty miles in the interior, the water was conducted in one continued covered channel of stone. Arches of more than a hundred feet in height carried it along for miles, over the widest valleys and deepest rivers, whilst by huge tunnels it penetrated through mountains and solid rocks. In the time of the republic, there were nine of these aqueducts, and afterwards under the emperors no less than twenty. The water obtained through the Marcian aqueduct was most highly esteemed, and came a distance of thirty-eight miles from the little river Pitonius. The Aqua Julia, and the Aqua Tepula were brought to Rome by the same aqueduct as the Aqua Marcia, but on higher levels. The whole aqueduct, supported on 7,000 arches, was divided into three stories or channels, each of which conducted a supply of water. Having reached the city at convenient points, the contents of the aqueducts were discharged into spacious reservoirs, and were thence distributed by leaden pipes in every direction to the remotest parts of the suburbs. A considerable portion of this immense quantity of pure water was used in the public baths; of which at one time there were 800, built in various styles of architecture, from the simple and plain, to a scale of grandeur truly amazing. Another portion of it found its way into those vast subterranean passages called cloacæ or sewers, and thus served to carry off the filth of the city. Still another portion of it was used in families, in private baths, fountains and gardens. When devoted to purposes such as these, the recipients of the benefit paid an annual stipend into the treasury. It is related in history, that at one time two aqueducts were seriously injured by the frauds of individuals in abstracting the water.

Sixth.—The Decumæ and Scriptura.—These taxes—the one a tithe and the other a pasture tax—were derived from the ager publicus, or public domain. Whenever the Romans succeeded in the conquest of a country they appropriated a portion, generally a third, of the land to their own use. A peace or impunity was oftentimes purchased by large grants of land to the Roman Republic from the vicinal states. The punishment of death, to which the Romans never resorted except in extreme cases, was not unfrequently commuted by the unconditional surrender of all property. By these and similar modes, the ager publicus embraced various and extensive tracts of the most beautiful, the most fertile, and the most eligible of all the lands in the empire. They were sometimes sold, but were usually bestowed in grants to particular persons; leased to farmers at a certain rent, or returned to the original owners upon an uncertain tenure, charged with the payment of the *decumæ*. These tithes were generally a tenth of the corn, when that was the product of the farm, or double that sum on vineyards. The *scriptura*—so called, because those who wished to feed their cattle on the public pastures, subscribed their names before the farmer of them—was an exaction of two-tenths of the young, the cheese, and the wool of cattle fed upon those pastures. The disposition of the public lands formed a fruitful theme of contention at Rome. The agrarian laws so much spoken of and so little understood, had reference to a division of these lands, and were no attacks upon private property. The troubles, the complaints, and the resistances, which distinguish every attempt made to parcel out, or to bestow these lands, were occasioned by persons who had settled on them without having acquired any title.

Seventh.—There were likewise at different periods, and for a time only, taxes laid upon bachelors; upon the clothes and ornaments of women; upon chariots of more than a certain price; upon freed slaves; upon fisheries; upon the estates of orphans; upon high-priced young slaves, which for this purpose were estimated at ten times their value, and subsequently upon tiles.

TRIBUTES.—Whenever the Romans desired to retain a conquered country as the property of the state, they converted it into a province. It received its laws from Rome; officers for its government were appointed by the Roman people, and the censors regulated its taxes. The property tax and the vectigalia were at once introduced, and an additional and often arbitrary tribute exacted. This tribute was generally required in the form of what was called *census capitis;* it was uniform in each province, was paid in money, and was more or less grievous as the fluctuating wants of the treasury might demand.

The system of peculation, too frequently adopted by the Roman officials in charge of the provinces, was proverbial; and to this fact, rather than the enormity of the stipulated taxes, may be traced the oppression which eat out the substance and crushed the industry of some of the fairest regions under the sway of Rome.

Some idea of the value of the provinces in swelling the treasury may be formed, by a recurrence to the revenues derived from a few of them about the close of the republic. From Egypt the annual product to the treasury was about twelve millions of dollars; from Gaul about ten, and from Asia, after the conquests of Pompey, twenty-two millions.

In addition to these regular revenues, there were, occasionally, irregular or extraordinary sources of income to the Roman state.

Voluntary contributions, in cases of urgent public necessity in the early days of the republic, frequently displayed the generosity and the patriotism of all orders of the people. A remarkable instance of this occurred after the disastrous battle of Cannæ. The treasury was empty; and, as a consequence, the censors were unable to repair the sacred edifices; to furnish horses to the curule magistrates, or to perform any duty involving the expenditure of money. Imme diately a large number of the public contractors gave notice that they would make no demand of payment until the war was ended; other creditors with equal spirit declared they did not desire payment in the present exigency; the property of minors and widows was hypothecated to the state, upon the public faith being pledged in redemption; and no horseman and no soldier would receive his pay. On a subsequent occasion, when it became necessary to man a fleet, and there was no money in the treasury to pay the rowers, a call was made by the consuls for private contributions. All the senators hastened to bring in their gold, silver and brass, whether in the form of coin, plate or jewels, to the treasury, with such ardor and emulation, that while each pressed to have his name among the first on the registers, the commissioners were unable to receive, and the clerks to enter the contributions. The same zeal and unanimity were soon apparent in the action of the equestrian order and the commons.

The spoils taken from the enemy served, occasionally, to replenish most amply the Roman treasury. These were sold by the prætor, so far as could be done consistently with the previous rewards promised to the soldiery, and of the vows made to the gods. Scipio having succeeded in taking Carthagena, weighed and reckoned to the quæstor two hundred and seventy-six golden bowls, every one of nearly a pound weight; eighteen thousand three hundred pounds weight of silver, wrought and coined, and a prodigious number of vessels and utensils of the same precious metal; besides brass, iron, slaves, corn, ships and military stores in quantities equally surprising. At the conclusion of the second Punic war the Carthaginians were compelled, as the only conditions of peace, to surrender among other things their fleet of 500 vessels, all their elephants, and to pay, in fifty annual instalments, 10,000 Eubic talents, or nearly 9,000,000 of dollars. The glory, however, of having contributed most largely to the treasury by battles and conquests, belongs to Paulus Æmilius. His triumph, upon his return from conquered Macedon, was graced, according to the lowest estimates, by 2,260,000 dollars in silver; 2,439,360 dollars in gold; a bowl of solid gold weighing 600 pounds, and a quantity of gold plate; besides silver bowls, horns, goblets and cups. Such were the large sums which now flowed into the exchequer from the various provinces, that the property tax, B. C. 168, was abolished; fifty-one years later, the [ager publicus was relieved from the usual burdens, and forty-seven years after that a law was passed *de abolendis Italiæ vectigalibus.*

Afterwards, when Julius Cæsar forced the Temple of Saturn and seized upon the treasury, according to Pliny, the treasure was immense, both in coin and in wedges of gold, reserved from the spoils of conquered nations from the time even of the Punic war. The sums thus abstracted approached six millions of dollars, which Cæsar replaced at the end of the civil war with twenty-four millions. In the time of the infamous triumvirate of Octavius, Anthony and Lepidus, B. C. 43, the property tax was restored.

Thirty-one years before the Christian era, Rome ceased to be a republic, and became, for a period of 506 years, subject to the sway of successive emperors. The city then covered a circuit of twenty-one miles, and its population exceeded a million of souls. The empire stretched from the Atlantic to the Euphrates, and from the Danube to the cataracts of the Nile. Beyond Italy, Carthage and Egypt, Greece and Macedon, Gaul and Spain, Sicily and Sardinia, Britain and a large portion of Asia, paid their tributes into the treasury of the imperial city. One hundred millions of people did homage to the dominion of Rome, when Octavius crushed, under the advance of his victorious legions, the last vestiges of liberty. That wily and sagacious prince, not satisfied with the millions of tribute which annually flowed from the provinces, proceeded, by slow and cautious steps, to bring back upon Rome and Italy their ancient burdens. His system of taxation was simple, yet searching:—

1.—*A general assessment on the property, both real and personal, of the Roman citizen.* This tax, even though exceedingly moderate, was one of importance. Within the limits of the city alone, there were forty-eight thousand houses. Some of these, one in twenty, were either stately mansions or costly palaces. In many of them might be found all that comfort or convenience could desire, art obtain, or the most fastidious luxury suggest; markets, hippodromes, fountains, baths, gardens, and groves of rarest trees, with walks, terraces, colonnades, and statuary. Suburban villas, beyond the walls, of the most splendid architecture, met the eye in every direction. Further in the interior were extensive farms, cultivated by immense numbers of slaves; vast herds of the finest cattle grazed upon rich pastures, parks of deer and other wild animals relieved the monotony of the scene; artificial lakes abounded in noble fish, and now and then a magnificent palace overlooked the whole. The useful, too, was combined with the ornamental. Their orchards of apples, plums, pears, cherries and figs; their fences made of rails, or hedges or ditches; their barns, threshing machines, and granaries; their houses for hens, for bees and for swine, were constructed in a style which gave evidence both of permanence and convenience. In the last days of the republic, Cicero had eighteen villas, farms and country seats; the fish-pond of C. Henius sold for nearly $160,000; M. Scaurus lost, by the burning of his villa, upwards of four millions, and the estate of Crassus was valued at $7,500,000. In later times many of the wealthier senators had cultivated estates not only in different portions of Italy, but even beyond the Ionian and Ægean seas.

2.—*The Excise.* This was a tax of one per cent. upon every article sold in the markets or at auction, embracing alike the sale of lands, houses, and the most valuable personal property, and all those minute objects which form a part of the daily consumption of each individual.

The markets at Rome, at which most commodities for the table were exposed to sale, were somewhat remarkable. These were five in number; the forum boavium or cattle market; suarium or swine market; piscarium or fish market; oletorium or vegetable market, and the forum cupidinis, where pastry and confections were sold.

These markets lay along the banks of the Tiber, and were contiguous to each other. They were under the supervision of the *ædiles*, who regularly, in person, or by deputy, examined all the provisions offered for sale; caused those that were not good to be thrown into the Tiber; prevented the use of unjust weights and measures, and fined such delinquents as refused or neglected a compliance with the sumptuary laws. Sales by auction were common methods by which property changed owners. There were certain courts in the Forum where auctions were held; a public crier called out the price, and a magistrate, who was in attendance, adjudged each article to the highest bidder. The person who bade held up his finger. A money broker marked down the article sold in his book; and the purchaser either paid the price in money, or gave security for it at the previously-expressed option of the seller.

3.—*The Customs.* These were levied, from an eighth to a fortieth part, on every kind of merchandise, which, from the remotest portions of the world, sought and found a ready market in Rome or Italy. Cinnamon, myrrh, pepper, ginger, ebony, jewels, a great variety of precious stones, silks, cottons, leather, slaves and eunuchs, were all subject to a subsidy. There was a discrimination in favor of the productions of the empire over the commerce of the East, and of neces saries in preference to luxuries.

4.—All legacies and inheritances paid a tax of five per cent. upon their value when over a certain sum, unless the heir was nearest of kin on the father's side. None but a Roman citizen could make a will; hence every foreigner, every provincial and every freedman, who was invested with the rights and obligations of a citizen, increased the chances of a lucrative income to the state. How far this may have had an influence in relaxing the ancient rigidity in conferring the honor of citizenship, of course cannot be known; but it is certain that from time to time all the inhabitants of Italy, and subsequently of the whole Roman world, except slaves, were placed upon a perfect equality in all their civil and municipal rights. The power to dispose of property by gift, or sale, or will, was absolute and unfettered; a stranger was oftentimes the recipient of bounties, in preference to those who were united to the testator by the ties of kindred or of blood. It was, indeed, a peculiar custom of Rome, for clients and dependants to bequeath to their patrons and friends a considerable portion of their estates, as the highest testimony of respect and gratitude; and the more that a man thus received the more it redounded to his credit. Thus it was a boast with Cicero that he gained a million of dollars by the voluntary gifts of his dying friends; Atticus, so famed for his elegant ease and amiable temper, succeeded to many extensive estates, and Augustus himself inherited, through the testaments of his clients and others, nearly one hundred and sixty millions of dollars.

From the system of revenue thus established by Augustus, there were occasional variations of only slight importance under the succeeding emperors, until Constantine the Great, A. D. 315, became sole master of the Roman world, and removed the seat of empire to

Constantinople. A reconstruction of the vast edifice which composed the state, now took place upon a plan entirely new. Idolatry was suppressed, and Christianity was encouraged by the erection of institutions of worship, and by extending patronage to the followers of the true God. The new court of Constantine, which thus drew around it much of the merit and learning of the age, unfortunately became the scene of follies, of revelries, and of splendors unrivaled even in legendary lore. New arts and devices for the exaction of taxes were resorted to, in order that these splendid pleasures might be gratified. Without abolishing the customs on merchandise, or the other subsidies established already, Constantine introduced, and his successors followed, a simple and direct mode of taxation, which reached every province, every citizen, and every species of property in the empire.

The *indiction*, in chronology a cycle of fifteen years, was now made a period of taxation. The emperor, by a solemn edict or indiction, which was published in every city and diocese, prescribed the measure of the tribute, and terms of its payment. The *super-indiction* was an additional tax levied either when the revenues fell short of the computation, or to meet some real or imaginary exigency of the public service. An accurate census was made at the regular distance of fifteen years. "The lands were measured by surveyors, who were sent into the provinces; their nature, whether arable or pasture, or vineyards or woods, was distinctly reported; and an estimate was made of their common value from the average produce of five years." The proprietor, under the sanction of an oath, and in the fear of the penalty of death, in case of prevarication, was compelled to render a correct schedule of his slaves, of his cattle, and of his property in general. A large portion of the tribute, thus wrung from the labor and wealth of the citizen, was exacted in gold, whilst the remainder, more oppressive still, called the anona, was paid into the imperial magazines, at the expense of the grower, from the actual produce of the soil, whether it "was wine or oil, corn or barley, wood or iron."

As the rolls of tribute, thus returned, were filled with the names of those citizens who possessed the means of decent subsistence, it was easy to take a step further, and to levy a tax per capita. The value of a tributary head probably varied at different places and at different times. In Gaul the common standard was forty-five dollars per head, and the exactions thus rapaciously demanded as a whole from all the provinces, have been estimated at nearly thirty-five millions of dollars. The lustral contribution was a distinct and personal tribute, intended to reach that respectable and wealthy class who were engaged in trade. It was levied every fourth year, and the approach of that period was announced by the tears and terrors of the people. Every species of trade and of industry, whether invested in money or merchandise, or derived from art or labor, was subject to this imposition. The merchant and the usurer—the manufacturer and mechanic—the wholesale vender of the city, and the retailer of the remotest village—all engaged in traffic and gain, except proprietors who disposed of the produce of their own estates—were compelled to submit to a hard and humiliating sacrifice of a portion of their earnings with the officers of the revenue. Racks and scourges originally, and the walls of a prison subsequently, attested the severity and the certainty of punishment to those who were so unfortunate as to be insolvent debtors to the state.

Besides these public revenues, which an absolute monarch might levy at his pleasure, the emperors derived a considerable income from their private estates. From confiscations and forfeitures, from families who had successively enjoyed the throne, or from the demesnes of conquered kings, these estates had been gradually increasing, until they were scattered through all the provinces. In the fertile soil of Cappadocia, the royal domains were so extensive as to require a private treasurer. The temple of Comana, situated there, and dedicated to Bellona, was suppressed, and the consecrated lands, with six thousand slaves of the deity and her ministers, were applied to the private uses of the emperor.

There were offerings which, though once voluntary, and still perhaps bore the semblance of a gift, contributed now to swell the coffers of the public. The first of these was the *coronary gold*, a popular donation, which originated in an ancient custom, and was used to adorn the triumph of some victorious general. Now it was exacted as a debt of duty, and instead of being reserved for the occasion of a triumph, it was granted by compulsion from the several cities and provinces as often as the emperor chose to announce any great event, real or imaginary, which graced his reign.

When to these enormous burdens and exactions are added the *gold of affliction*, which was a personal tribute upon the industry of the poor; the *aerial tribute*, which was an annual gift, exceeding a half million of dollars, levied by the prætorian prefect, in such manner as his discretion dictated, as a present to the emperor; the *free gift* of the Roman senate, of about half that sum, and intended for the same purpose, and the infamous and rapacious monopoly of silk by the royal treasurer, it is not surprising that the manufacturers of Tyre and Berytus, in the reign of Justinian, were reduced to poverty, or driven into exile—that the poor were depressed for the want of food—that many abandoned the possession of landed estates from inability to satisfy the demands of the treasury, and that some of the provinces, especially the once beautiful Campania—rendered classic as the retreat of Tully, and other illustrious citizens—within sixty years after the death of Constantine, was rendered the abode of a desolation so melancholy and complete, as to leave little to the destruction of those barbarian hordes which were ere long to sweep like a whirlwind into Italy, and to scatter the Roman empire into fragments for ever.

ART. III.—THE STATES OF EUROPE—SPAIN.

HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY—EXTENT AND PHYSICAL FEATURES—MINERAL, VEGETABLE, AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS—AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE—TAXATION—REVENUE AND FINANCES—ARMY AND NAVY—LOCAL DIVISIONS—COLONIES—POPULATION, AMOUNT AND CHARACTER—RELIGION AND EDUCATION—LANGUAGE, LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS, ETC., ETC.

This constitutes the fifth of our series of papers upon Europe, the others being the "Zoll-verein," "Russia," "Turkey," and "Greece." They are prepared from all the latest and most reliable sources of information, and will be followed by more elaborate statistic returns and tables hereafter.—ED.

HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY.—Spain was inhabited, at the earliest period in which it is known in history, by the Iberians and the Celts. These nations had come thither from their original home in Asia at a period anterior to historical records. The Iberians had settled in the eastern and southern, the Celts in the western and northern portions of the country; but the latter, having in the course of time become intermingled with the former, received the name of Celtiberians. The whole country was known to the Greeks under the appellation of *Iberia*, and sometimes Hesperia, (*i. e.*, *the western land*,) which latter name, however, was applied by them to Italy, and in general to any country which lay to the west of Greece. Part of Spain, that situated around Tartessus, is probably spoken of in the Scriptures under the name of Tarshish; and the whole country was called by the Romans *Hispania*, a term the origin of which is not certainly known. Some suppose it to have been derived from the Phœnician *span*, "concealed," and think that the land was so called from the circumstance that it was little known at an early period to the Phœnician traders. Bochart derives the appellation from the Phœnician (or Hebrew) *shaphan*, "a rabbit;" and supposes that this name was conferred upon the country by the Phœnicians, because it was found by them to abound in these animals. This latter derivation is the preferable one, but neither of the two can be said to be satisfactory.

After a time the Phœnicians, coming from the coast of Asia for the purposes of commerce, established colonies in this to them "the far west," first probably at Tartessus, then at Gades, (now Cadiz,) and subsequently at other places. Part of the country was subjected to their rule, and the conquered inhabitants were forced to work the rich silver and gold mines with which the region abounded. Their trade with the country was lucrative, and at first was carried on secretly; but at length the Greeks and the Carthaginians began to participate in it, and founded trading-factories on different parts of the southern coast. Carthage, though itself a colony of Phœnicia, soon coveted, amid her rising commercial greatness, the Spanish colonies of the mother country. She captured them, and reduced the whole of maritime Spain to a Carthaginian province. The interior, however, she could not subdue, for the hardy inhabitants of the mountains could ill brook the servitude which the natives of the coast were compelled to endure. Thus for several centuries the sway of Carthage was predominant and undisputed in southern Spain; but, on the rise of the Roman power, the native tribes of the peninsula allied themselves with that nation, and attempted to throw off the Punic yoke. They succeeded in doing so; but only to put on the chains which had been forged for them at Rome. At first an ally, Rome, as was her wont, became at last a mistress. The capture of Numantia, in 134 B. C., gave to the Romans a supremacy over Spain which for centuries was disputed by no other foreign nation; but the country was not fully subjugated, despite all the efforts, even of Cæsar and his lieutenants, until about 25 years before Christ. At this time the whole of the Pyrenean peninsula became a Roman province, and adopted the language, the laws, the customs and the manners of its conquerors. Under Augustus, the northern and northwestern part of Spain was known as Tarraconensis; the southeastern as Bætica; the western (Portugal) as Lusitania; but in the time of Constantine, the extreme northwestern part was called Gallæcia (Gallicia,) and the extreme southeastern part of Bætica was known as Carthaginiensis (Murcia.) The various Spanish tribes had now become fused into one nation, which had become a civilized and peace-loving people. Literature and the arts were in a flourishing state, and several centuries of repose and prosperity passed away.

At length, however, came the migration of nations. Neither Spain nor Rome herself could withstand the shock. Early in the fifth century hordes of uncivilized foreigners, rushing from the north and east, began to pour into the peninsula. First came the Alans, the Sueves, and the Vandals. Then the Visigoths stormed in, subdued those who preceded them in their migration, and the few remnants of the Romans that were yet left behind, and by the sixth century had become masters of the entire country. Toledo was made the capital and royal residence in 581; and a Gothic dynasty was fully established over Spain. The original natives were for the most part either expelled, or extirpated; or they were driven into the mountain fastnesses, among the people of which are now found the most striking relics of the language and manners of the ancient Celtiberians. The conquerors ruled with an iron hand; and the expression *hijo del Goda, son of the Goth*, (from which, corrupted, comes the Spanish *hidalgo*,) became the title of a noble, lording it over a herd of slaves.

For about two centuries the Visigoths ruled the peninsula without opposition. Contentions among themselves proved at last their ruin. One party invited the Arabs or Moors from Africa to their assistance, and the usual consequences followed. Crossing over the Straits of Gibraltar, an immense Moorish army hastened in 711 to the attack of the Visigoths, who stood prepared for the foe, under the lead of Roderic, their king, near Xeres de la Frontera, in Andalusia. A nine days' battle ensued; in which the Goths were entirely defeated, and Roderic slain. Those of the conquered who were left alive, were led by Pelagio and other chieftains into the mountain region of Asturias, whence, unmolested at first by the victors on account of their supposed insignificance, they commenced a contest with the Moors, which, though lasting for seven centuries, was not to end until the last of that hated race had been expelled from the liberated kingdom. After gaining the battle which gave them the control of Spain, the Arabs overran the whole of the country, except the little province now known as Asturias, and even advanced into France. Mohammedanism threatened to extirpate Christianity in Europe, as it had done in Asia; but the strong arm of Charles Martel hurled back the host of Saracenic invaders, and their conquest was confined to Spain.

The kingdom which the Moors now founded became distinguished for the civilization and learning of its inhabitants; and the courts of Cordova and Granada were the most splendid in Europe. Encroachments, however, soon began to be made upon its power by the Christians who had fled to the mountains, and they commenced to recover by degrees the territories which they had lost. About the middle of the same century in which the Saracenic conquest took place, Alphonso I. founded the kingdom of Leon; and from this period, province after province was wrested from the Moor. Several Christian states were successively formed, of which the two most powerful were Castile and Arragon. Spain was at last again united into one Christian kingdom, by the union of the crowns of these two kingdoms—Ferdinand of Arragon marrying Isabella of Castile, (1474,) and by the final overthrow and expulsion of the Moors (1492.) That part of Navarre which lies south of the Pyrenees being seized by Ferdinand, and annexed to his dominions, Naples having been conquered by his army, and America having been discovered by a navigator sailing under his patronage, that monarch, already one of the wisest, became now one of the most powerful princes in Europe.

Ferdinand was succeeded, first by his daughter Joanna, then by his grandson Charles I., (1516,) with whom, better known as Charles V. of Germany, began the reign of the *house of Hapsburg* in Spain. By right of his father Philip, Charles possessed the archduchy of Austria and the Low countries; and to these were added the inheritance of Spain and the Indies, now vastly increased by the conquest of Mexico and Peru. Under him and his successor Philip II., (1556,) the husband of Queen Mary, of England, and the king by whom Portugal was conquered, (1580,) Spain reached the culminating point of her power and glory. Her armies were at this time confessedly the best organized and the most formidable of any in Europe, and her dominions included several of the finest countries in the civilized world. Philip II. died in 1589, and was succeeded by his son Philip III., (1598—1621;) then followed Phillip IV., (1621—1665;) and then Charles II., (1665—1700,) with whom the male line of the house of Hapsburg became extinct.

The power of Spain had by this time materially declined. Indeed, that decline had commenced perceptibly during the reign of Philip

II., whose tyranny raised a revolt in the Netherlands which led ultimately to their separation from the Spanish crown, and to their independence as the Seven United Provinces. The constant and expensive wars in which the different monarchs engaged, the rigid restrictions which they imposed upon commerce, making it profitable only to those nations who supplied its materials, exhausted the resources of the kingdom; while, to use the expressive words of another, "the establishment of the Inquisition and the censorship of the press, and the attacks made on the ancient rights and liberties of the nation, paralyzed its energies; and the unsuccessful rebellion of the commons of Castile, under Charles V., and the brutal and ferocious bigotry of Philip II., extinguished every spark of civil and religious liberty, and subjected the country to the vilest of all despotisms, that which principally depends for support on intolerance, superstitious zeal, and religious quackery." The armies of the kingdom, once so formidable, were vanquished by the French under Condé and Turenne; and Spain soon lost her rank in Europe, while the nations which surrounded her were constantly advancing in power, wealth, and civilization.

On the death of Charles II., the *war of the succession* broke out, lasting from 1701 to 1714. It resulted in the dismemberment of the kingdom. The chief claimants of the throne and the chief combatants in this war, were Philip of Anjou, a French prince, great-grandson of Philip IV., and the Austrian Archduke Charles, (afterwards emperor of Germany,) great-grandson of Philip III. The German Empire, the duke of Savoy, Holland and England, took part in the contest, which resulted, by the peace of Utrecht (1713) and Rastadt, (1714,) as follows: The prince of Anjou, of the *house of Bourbon*, was acknowledged, under the title of Philip V., king of Spain and both Indies; to Charles, or the house of Austria, were awarded the possessions which Spain had in the Netherlands, and in Italy, except the Island of Sardinia, which was conferred upon the duke of Savoy, under the title of king of Sardinia; to England were assigned Gibraltar (which that power still possesses) and the island of Minorca, (receded in 1755,) but Holland received no part of the divided territories.

The new dynasty was less intolerant than that which it succeeded, and introduced some reforms in the administration of the government, but Spain has continued, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, to be little more than a dependency of its powerful and influential neighbor, France. The first object of Philip V., when his claim to the throne had been fully established, was to fix the order of succession to the crown. For this purpose mainly he convoked, in 1713, the Cortes, a body which from an early period had been the true and legitimate representatives of the nation; and these, in conjunction with the king, adopted the *Salic law*, or that by which the succession in France was regulated, according to which no female could ever ascend the throne. This, therefore, became the fundamental law of the Spanish, as it had been for years of the French kingdom. To Philip V. succeeded Ferdinand VI., (1746—1759;) to Ferdinand, Charles III., (1759—1788;) to Charles III., Charles IV.(1788—1808.) Enticed by Napoleon, whose power was now predominant in continental Europe, Charles IV. and his son Ferdinand renounced, in 1808, their right to the Spanish crown in favor of the emperor of the French; and he appointed his brother Joseph Bonaparte to the throne. This the Spanish nation could not endure. War was declared against France by the exasperated people; and the new monarch met with the warmest opposition. But what could their unaided efforts have availed against the mighty power of Napoleon? The assistance of England was sought and obtained, and then ensued that sanguinary struggle known in history as the peninsular war. It ended in the expulsion of Joseph and the French, and the return, in 1814, of Ferdinand VII. (Charles having resigned) as king.

Meantime, during the waging of the contest, the Cortes had been invoked (1810) to devise delays for the safety and government of the kingdom, and had framed a new constitution (1812.) This constitution, however, was defective both in its provisions and in its practical workings; it was not suited to the wants of the people, nor did it give them satisfaction. The nation was divided into factions; yet the supporters of the constitution hoped that the return of the king would restore tranquillity and contentment. The king did return; but he dissolved the Cortes and abolished the constitution. Those who, having belonged to the Cortes, or being adherents of the constitution, opposed themselves to the views of Ferdinand, felt the weight of his vengeance. Absolutism was re-established; and for six years the blood of the constitutionalists flowed like water. At length, in 1820, revolution again broke out, and the abolished constitution was re-proclaimed by the army which was assembled at Cadiz, on its way to the reduction of insurgent Spanish America. The king overawed gave his sanction to the step. An opposing party, however, was soon created; and even the friends of the movement were not united. Foreign interference settled the question. An army of the French, commanded by the duke of Angoulême, marched into the peninsula, (March, 1823,) and in less than a year the liberalists were completely subdued, and the Spanish king restored to unlimited power (Sept., '23.) Henceforth punishment and persecution were the order of the day, carried on, however, not so much by the monarch as by the fanatical re-action party, to whom any government but absolutism was a stumbling-block and an offence. To these men, Ferdinand seemed too much inclined to clemency; but his brother, Don Carlos, the heir-apparent to the throne, was the idol of their affections.

Distracted herself since 1820, by internal dissensions, Spain had neither the leisure nor the power to reduce her revolted provinces in America; and, in consequence, they gained and kept their independence. It might have been expected that, after Ferdinand had become securely seated in his throne, and after the heat of the first re-action had passed away, tranquillity, if not satisfaction, would have prevailed in the kingdom. Such, however, was not the case; and the conduct of the reigning monarch himself, who, in 1830, abrogated the Salic law of succession to the throne, in favor of his daughter

Isabella, and to the exclusion of Don Carlos, lighted a fire which was destined soon to burst out into the flame of civil war. The adherents of Carlos were enraged, and even before the death of Ferdinand, (Sept., '33,) exhibited their opposition in the most threatening manner. Her father dying, Isabella II., then three years old, was proclaimed queen, and her mother, Maria Christina, regent during the minority of her daughter, (till 1843.) She succeeded to a kingdom which was destined for years to be torn by the tumults of civil war. The supporters of Don Carlos immediately flew to arms, and sought to place him on the throne of which his niece was, as they thought, illegally and unjustly the occupant. The contest lasted for some years, (till after 1840,) but was finally decided in favor of Isabella, whose pretensions received the support of France and England. The history of the struggle is too recent to need to be recounted. In the revolutions of 1848 the Spanish people took no prominent part; and the queen, now married and a mother, kept an undisturbed possession of her crown.

The governments of Spain, under the administrations of the regent Maria Christina and Isabella II., the present queen, has been quite different from what it was during the rule of Ferdinand VII. For nearly thirty years, as we have seen, (from 1808 to 1833,) the government oscillated between absolute monarchy and a legislature (the Cortes, elected by the people) of one house. In 1834 a new feature was introduced, a Cortes of two houses; and in 1837 a new constitution, based upon that of 1812, but more conservative, was adopted by the Cortes (April 27) and sworn to by the queen (June 18.) By this the division of the Cortes into two houses was confirmed; and since that time various improvements have been made in the constitution, such as wisdom or necessity seemed to dictate. Never since the time of Charles III. has the kingdom of Spain, politically speaking, been in a better condition than she is at present; but the reestablishment of absolutism in France has begun, through the influence which that government exerts upon her Spanish neighbor, to make the signs of the times somewhat ominous of a return to a more despotic administration.

Extent and Physical Features of the Country.—Spain is the most southern part of Europe, occupying nearly four-fifths of the Pyrenean peninsula, which is connected with the mainland of Europe by an isthmus about one hundred miles in breadth. It stretches from 36° to 43° 46′ north latitude, or about 540 miles; and from 3° 17′ east to 9° 30′ west longitude, about 560 miles; and contains an area of 179,921 square miles. From 1580 to 1640, the total extent of the Spanish dominions in Europe, the Indies and America, amounted to 9,239,855 square miles. The surface of the country is strikingly irregular, being traversed by several lofty ranges of mountains, between which lie plains of vast extent. Of these mountain ranges, the most northerly and longest is that of the Pyrenees, a chain which separates Spain from France, the highest peak of which, Maladetta, reaches an elevation of 11,436 feet above the level of the sea. The The Cantabrian mountains are, in fact, a continuation of the Pyrenees. Of the ranges which more properly pertain to Spain, the Sierra Nevada is the principal. This is situated in the south, not far from the Mediterranean, and has a peak, Cumbre de Mulhacen, which reaches the height of 11,678 feet. Parallel to this chain, further north, runs the lofty range of the Sierra Morena. To this succeeds, going northwardly, the Sierra of Toledo; and further north, two other important ranges. From the Pyrenees, at both extremities, shoot down lofty ranges into the peninsula. Of these, the western is called the Iberian mountains, which, running almost due south, forms the western boundary of the provinces of Arragon and Valencia. Between these different mountain ranges are situated extensive plains, rich, healthy and delightful.

Of the rivers peculiar to Spain, the principal are: 1, the Ebro, which, rising in the Cantabrian mountains, forms the boundary between Old Castile and the Biscayan provinces and Navarre, and then crossing Arragon and Catalonia, empties into the Mediterranean, after running a course of 405 miles; 2, the Guadalaviar, which, rising in Arragon, and crossing Valencia, flows into the same sea; 3, the Guadalquiver, which, rising on the borders of Murcia and Jaen, flows for 300 miles through Jaen, Cordova and Seville, and then empties into the Atlantic just above the city of Cadiz. The rivers which are common to Spain and Portugal, are: 1, the Tagus, which, rising on the frontiers of Arragon, crosses New Castile, Estremadura and Portugal, and, after running 552 miles, flows below Lisbon into the Atlantic; 2, the Duero, which rises between Saragossa and Burgos, flows through Old Castile, Leon and Portugal, 478 miles in all, and falls into the Atlantic below Oporto; 3, the Minho, which, rising in Gallicia, and forming the boundary between that province and Portugal, empties into the Atlantic; 4, the Guadiana, which, rising in the southern part of New Castile, has a course of 483 miles, and forms on the south, as the Minho on the north, the boundary between Spain and Portugal, separating the province of Algarva in the latter from that of Seville in the former country. The whole of Spain contains not a single lake worthy of the name, except Albufera, near the city of Valencia, which, however, is rather a lagoon.

The rivers of the country, notwithstanding their length, being filled with rocks, shallows and water-falls, are of little use for navigation, except those portions of the Duero and the Tagus which lie within the limits of Portugal. The imperial canal, however, which has been constructed along the right bank of the Ebro, from Tudela to Santiago, has made that river navigable to a considerable extent, while the channel of the Tagus has been so improved that boats can ascend it as far as Aranjuez, 23 miles above Toledo. The Guadalquiver is navigable, by boats of 100 tons, to within a few miles of Seville. The most important canal project is that of the *canal of Castile*, a work which, though commenced in 1753, is not yet complete. The canal is to extend from Segovia on the south to the Bay of Biscay; but it had reached, at last accounts, after being constructed past Valladolid and Valencia, only to the town of Aguilar de Campo. How long it will be before it connects with the ocean, cannot readily be conjectured; for, in enterprises of this kind, the Spaniards are backward, though by no means as much so as in the time of Charles II., in whose reign it is said that the council of Castile gravely replied to an application in favor of rendering the Tagus and its branch, the Mancanares, navigable as far as Madrid, "that if it had pleased God that these two rivers should have been navigable, he would not have wanted human assistance to have made them such; but, as he had not done it, it is plain that he did not think it proper that it should be done."

As to its geological character, Spain is distinguished by the following characteristics: in the north, a central band of mica-schist extends along the whole length of the Pyrenees, from the Mediterranean to the Bay of Biscay; and this is flanked successively by beds of the secondary and chalk formations. The primary rocks reach only as far as Bidassoa, sandstone and carboniferous limestone being the material of the lower parts of the main chain, and also of the mountains of Asturias and Gallicia. The mountain range between the two Castiles, in which is Mount Guaderrama, is composed of granite and other primary rocks, flanked on both sides by sandstone and limestone. The Sierra Morena is composed mainly of primary rocks; and the Sierra Nevada is a mass of mica-slate and serpentine, flanked on the north by rocks of the secondary and more recent formations, and on the south by secondary limestone, resting on highly metalliferous slate, on greenstone and blue limestone. The northern flank of this range contains some of the richest marble found in Spain; while the limestone strata of the Sierra de Gadon are noted for their lead mines. Mines containing various metals abound in the mountains of the country.

CLIMATE AND SOIL.—The *climate* of Spain is, upon the whole, mild and pleasant, except along the northern coast; and, with the same exception, is remarkable for its dryness, which, however, continues so long at times that both vegetation and animals are destroyed. The coast of the Mediterranean possesses a fine climate, with a temperature usually above 57° and seldom so low as 32° of Fahrenheit. Immediately on the coast, winter is hardly known; but in the interior, as for instance on the plateau of Castile, the thermometer reaches 77° only in the middle of the summer's heat. Here, too, the winter is usually quite severe. In the north, both cold and rain prevail. Valencia and Murcia, in the southeast, have an almost perpetual spring; and in Granada and Andalusia, in the south, several kinds of tropical fruits are produced in abundance. Troublesome winds are, the *gallego* from the north, which produces, besides other diseases, painful affections of the eyes; and the enfeebling *solano* from the south, which, like the Italian *sirocco*, often produces giddiness and inflammation, and, it is said, even death. Neither of these usually prevails for any great length of time.

The *soil* in the central portions of the country, consisting in general of plains of sand, or gypsum, is for the most part barren; but that of the southern region is everywhere quite fertile, or may be made so by a process of irrigation. In Old Castile the land is upon the whole productive; in New Castile it is of a mixed character; the valleys of the Sierra Morena and all Estremadura, are surprisingly fertile; Andalusia may be rendered productive; Valencia is poor; Catalonia and Arragon are of a mixed character; but the rega of Malaga is the most fertile of all, owing partly to its having an alluvial soil, and partly to the care with which it is irrigated by its cultivators.

PRODUCTIONS—MINERAL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL.—From a period which goes beyond our historical records, Spain has been noted for the richness of her mines of gold, and especially silver. Until the beginning of the sixteenth century, that country was to Europe what her American possessions have been to the modern world, the chief source from which it drew its supply of the precious metals. Until the sixteenth century, the mines of Spain were wrought successively by the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, Moors, and finally by the Spaniards; but they were closed on the discovery of those of Mexico and Peru. More recently, however, they have been re-opened, and wrought with signal success, particularly in upper Andalusia; the yield in 1843 reaching 229,070 marks of silver. The most valuable mines of the country are those of *lead*, which, next to those of England, are the richest in Europe; and so successfully have they been wrought, that several other less productive mines in other parts of Europe have been abandoned during the last twenty years, and the price of lead has materially diminished. *Quicksilver* mines are worked at Almaden, in the Castilian districts of La Mancha; and they yield annually about 20,000 quintals. *Copper* mines also exist in the country; but they yielded in 1843 only 300 quintals. *Tin*, *antimony*, *cobalt*, *alum*, and other minerals are also found, together with every variety of marble, and building-stone of the finest kind. *Salt* is obtained from mines in La Mancha, at the mountain of Cardona, and in Catalonia. About seventeen miles from Montserrat, in this province, there is a mountain, or vast hill, which is one solid mass of pure rock salt. *Iron* is found in considerable quantities, chiefly in the Basque provinces; and the annual produce is on the increase.

The forests of Spain, though the soil of the country is well adapted to their growth, are less extensive than those of any other important state in Europe; and this is owing, it is said, to the strange propensity which the people in general have for cutting down and destroying the trees before they attain to any considerable size. Besides eight different kinds of oak, there are found here the chestnut, beach, pine, tamarisk, fir, poplar, and other forest trees. The fruits of the northern provinces are apples, pears, cherries, peaches, chestnuts, etc.; of the southern, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, dates, olives, almonds, and pistachio nuts. The soil produces, upon cultivation, wheat, (from which the best bread in Europe is said to be made,) but not enough in some districts for home consumption, oats, barley, maize, rice, oil, sugar, hemp, flax, cotton, saffron, barilla, (a fine species of ashes,) honey, and silk, together with all the vegetable productions raised in Europe, and some of which belong properly to tropical climates. Grapes are produced in abundance; and are exported, both green and dry. Single bunches in Andalusia sometimes weigh from twelve to fourteen pounds. Wine is expressed in large quantities; and not a little of that produced in the southern provinces (the best of which is that of Malaga, Xeres, our *sherry*, and of Alicante) is annually exported.

Of wild animals, the bear, so common in Spain about two centuries ago, is found only in the Pyrenees; but in other parts of the country, wild boars, foxes, wolves, the lynx, and the wild cat are occasionally met with. The bull is found wild in the Sierra Morena. Monkeys are to be seen in the Sierra de Ronda; and in other places, reptiles, among which the lizard is sometimes found two feet in length.

Among the birds are to be enumerated vultures, ravens, falcons, owls, bustards, quails, partridges, etc. Of tame animals, we find in Spain *horses*, (the finest breed in Andalusia, the next finest in Asturias,) for which the country was once, particularly under the domination of the Moors, highly distinguished, but now the breed is rather degenerate; *mules*, (which are preferred by the Spaniards to horses,) numbers of which are reared in Old Castile, being sent to pasture upon the plains of Estremadura; *asses*, which are of large size, and carefully bred; *hogs*, numbers of which are raised upon the acorns which the country so abundantly affords; and, in particular, *sheep*, for the rearing of which Spain has been renowned since the middle ages. Besides the celebrated merino sheep, there are two other less valuable breeds, Churros and Metis. During the summer these animals are allowed to feed upon the elevated table-lands of Castile and Leon; but during the winter they are driven, in flocks of ten thousand and upwards, called *mestas*, to the plains of Estremadura and the adjoining provinces. This annual migration of the flocks, which is quite necessary to their welfare, is regulated by fixed laws, which, however, are not always strictly observed. Since the last civil war the flocks of sheep have greatly diminished in number, the whole stock not exceeding, ten years ago, 14,000,000, at which time England, with one-fourth as much pasture-land as belongs to Spain, had at least as many as 25,000,000. The quality of the wool, too, seems not to be as good as formerly, for even that of the merinoes does not surpass that of the sheep raised in several other countries.

AGRICULTURE.—If we except a few districts, such as the irrigated lands of Granada, Murcia and Valencia, and those in which modern improvements in husbandry have been adopted, as Biscay, Navarre and Arragon, agriculture in Spain is in a most languishing condition. The chief productions of the soil have been already mentioned; and these are raised by means of implements such as were in use centuries since in the country. Grain, after being trodden out of its husks by the feet of mules, is usually winnowed by throwing it into the air; and, when ground, the operation is more frequently performed by a hand than by a wind or water-mill. Some fifty years ago, before the peninsula had been so frequently overrun by foreign armies, and before it was distracted and almost ruined by civil war, Spain, according to a census then taken, had 18,890 square leagues of land, of which 1,342 were occupied by mountains and rivers, 1,580 by forests and copses, 11,658 by pastures and commons, and only 4,310 were cultivated land and fallows. Since that time, the proportion has been much less, though probably it is not at the present moment. This backward state of agriculture is attributable to various causes, partly physical, and partly moral. Of the physical, we may mention as the chief, the aridity of much of the soil, the dryness of the climate, especially in the interior, and the want of facilities in most places for irrigation, and of proper roads and means of conveyance to market. The moral causes, which are the most numerous and the most operative, are, in particular—*a*, the unequal division of the lands, vast bodies of which belong to the nobility, to corporations, and to the clergy; but no landed property belongs to the latter now, since the confiscations made in 1835–36, during the regency of the mother of the present queen, are held under entail, and are managed by stewards; *b*, the oppressiveness of taxation, which is so great that lands when rented out do not yield their owners more than from 1½ to 2 per cent.; for the tenant, after paying his tithes, etc., has little more than half his produce left to pay both his labor and his rent; and *c*, the fact that agriculture, and indeed all manual labor, has long been looked upon in Spain as unbecoming a gentleman—a notion which arose from the warlike and adventurous pursuits in which the nation was for so many centuries engaged.

Manufactures.—It is said that under the Moors Spain was a manufacturing country: be this as it may, she certainly has not been since their expulsion (finally in 1607, 800,000 in all having been sent out of the country.) There are, it is true, now to be found in Spain woolen, silk, cotton, and other manufactories; but the fabrics produced in these are high in price and badly finished; and, not being able to vie with those of Great Britain, that power has availed itself of the political influence which it has gained during the wars of the present century, and created a sort of monopoly for its own goods in the country. There are woolen manufactories in Castile, manufactories of damask and silk in Andalusia, of cotton in Catalonia, of paper in the eastern provinces, of arms in the northwestern, and of leather in the northern. Some of the causes which have operated against agriculture have also proved injurious to manufactories; and, in addition, the influence of the *alcabala* (a duty imposed on all commodities, whether manufactured or raw, *as often as they were sold*, and rated at the selling price, amounting, of course, almost to a prohibition of manufacture) and other taxes, privileges granted to corporations and monopolies on the part of the government. Besides these drawbacks, the dissensions of the last fifty years have served as a constant check upon the advance of the manufacturing interest of the country.

Commerce.—The commerce of the country is in a very languid and stagnant condition. Indeed there is little, as we have seen, for commerce to base itself upon. Of 2,830 vessels which in 1844 entered the port of Cadiz, 2,060 were Spanish coasters; of the rest, 480 were English vessels, 75 belonged to the United States, 6 were from

Hamburg, 4 from Bremen, 4 from Prussia, etc. The articles chiefly exported are wines, fruits, salt, olive oil, corks, wool, (only about one-tenth of what was formerly sent out of the country,) and quicksilver. The imports consist of colonial spices and other products, cloth, calicoes, silks, linen, copper and pewter utensils, glass-wares, furniture, toys and trinkets, fancy articles; and also timber, corn, flax, hemp, dried and salt fish, salt beef, butter, cheese, poultry and hogs; many of them being articles which, under other circumstances, might be produced at home at a cost very much less than that at which they can be afforded after importation. In 1838, the commerce of the kingdom amounted, according to the custom-house returns, at eleven of the principal ports, to £1,615,000 imports and £2,113,888 exports. But the imports and exports of the kingdom must in that year have amounted, each, to at least £4,000,000, the smuggling trade, owing to the high protective tariff of Spain, being carried on then, as now, to an extent at least equal to the commerce which was legitimate. There can be no doubt that the revenue derived by Spain, from her present exorbitant duties, is not by any means, probably not one-fourth so great as she would obtain from a tariff of a more liberal character—such as would not put a premium upon smuggling, as is now done, and has been for centuries. Nor does the present tariff operate, as it was intended to do, as a protection to home industry and manufactures; for the whole country is filled with articles of merchandise brought in by the *contrabandistas*, more than 150,000 of whom, it is reported by good authority, are regularly engaged in carrying on their illicit trade under the very eyes of the government. The ill effects of these high protective duties, evident as they would seem to be, and often as they have been pointed out even by Spanish writers, have not altered the settled anti-commercial policy which Spain has pursued since the days of Ferdinand and Isabella; and yet, unless a very material change in this policy be effected, commerce cannot be expected to flourish. "The truth is, that a thorough reform in her commercial policy is absolutely indispensable to give Spain even a chance of being regenerated. So long as the present tariff is maintained, so long will she be a theatre of sanguinary contests; without industry, without civilization—a reproach and a disgrace to Europe."

(To be concluded in our next.)

ART. IV.—EARLY LIFE IN THE SOUTHWEST—THE BOWIES.

[Dr. Kilpatrick, of Trinity, Louisiana, furnishes us the following interesting sketch of James Bowie, whose reputation as the author of the "Bowie Knife," and subsequent career, down to his melancholy fate at the Alamo, have almost a romantic interest. Dr. K. intends it as a supplement to his valuable paper upon Catahoula, the early home of the Bowies, his material for the biography at that

time having been very meagre. He is indebted to a brother of James Bowie, now residing in Mississippi, for the sketch.]—Ed.

My father and mother were both born in the state of Georgia. They were married in 1782 in the county of Burke of the same state; my mother's maiden name being Elvira Jones; my father's name was Rezin Bowie. During my infancy, or about the year 1787, my parents moved from Georgia to the state of Tennessee, where they remained for six or seven years. During this sojourn my father had frequent skirmishes with the Indians, and was engaged in the conflicts then so common in that devoted country. After this he removed to Logan county, Kentucky, where my brother James was born in the spring of 1796.

My father was passionately fond of the adventures and excitements of a woodsman's life, and as the country improved and opened, population increased, and the refinements of civilization encroached upon the freedom of his hunting-grounds, he retired to wilder regions, where he could enjoy those sports and stirring adventures peculiar to a frontier life. In the year 1800 he removed to the state, or rather province of Missouri, and in 1802 he came and settled on the Bushley Bayou, in what was then the district of Rapides, Louisiana, and under Spanish rule. Here he remained till 1809, when he again, and for the last time, took up the line of march, and finally settled in the district of Opelousas, where he remained until he died, in 1819, in the fall of the year. He sleeps with the common mother Earth, without any stone or inscription to mark the resting-place of him whose bosom was so often bared, and whose hand was so often raised for the defence of his family, and the homes and firesides of his countrymen, against the secret and deadly attacks of savage foes. At his death he left four sons, myself being the eldest, Rezin, James and Stephen, and two daughters.

James Bowie, with the rest of my father's family, was raised mostly in remote and wild regions, and consequently grew up with but little education, or other advantages besides those inherited by natural endowment, or acquired from parental instruction. We certainly were greatly indebted to our dear mother for much of the information we possessed. She was a sincerely pious woman, and always inculcated the pure principles of the religion of that Saviour whom she so faithfully served.

My brother James spent the most important part of his childhood in Catahoula parish, between the years 1802 and 1809, embracing the period between the ages of six and fifteen years.

About the year 1814 James left my father's house and launched upon life—

"With all the world before him,"

and not only undertook to provide for himself, but actually did it, as has often been done by hundreds of others before and since. He settled on Bayou Bœuf, Rapides Parish, and cleared a small piece of land, but his chief means of support was from sawing plank and other lumber with the common whip-saw, and boating down the Bayou for sale. The proceeds of his lumber procured him his food and clothing, powder and shot, &c.

He was young, proud, poor, and ambitious, without any rich family connections, or influential friends to aid him in the battle of life. After reaching the age of maturity he was a stout, rather raw-boned man, of six feet height, weighed 180 pounds, and about as well made as any man I ever saw. His hair was light-colored, not quite red—his eyes were gray, rather deep set in his head, very keen and penetrating in their glance; his complexion was fair, and his cheek-bones rather high. Taken altogether, he was a manly, fine-looking person, and by many of the fair ones he was called handsome. He was possessed of an open, frank disposition, with rather a good temper, unless aroused by some insult, when the displays of his anger were terrible, and frequently terminated in some tragical scene. But he was never known to abuse a conquered enemy, or to impose upon the weak and defenceless. A man of very strong social feelings, he loved his friends with all the ardor of youth, and hated his enemies and their friends with all the rancor of the Indian. He was social and plain with all men, fond of music and the amusements of the day, and would take a glass in merry mood to drive dull care away; but seldom allowed it to "steal away his brains, or transform him into a beast."

He lived and labored several years on Bayou Bœuf, where no doubt many yet live who can recount his deeds of wild sport and recklessness which he there performed, prompted by his innate love of excitement. He was fond of fishing and hunting, and often afforded rare sport to his neighbors by his daring exploits in roping and capturing wild deer in the woods, or catching and riding wild unmanageable horses. He has been even known to rope and ride alligators. He had a way of catching bears which was entirely original. In the summer season, when the bears were constantly ravaging the little patches of green corn of the early settlers, he adopted the following novel plan to entrap them. After finding the place where they usually entered the field, he procured a hollow *cypress knee* of suitable size, which was properly cleaned out, and then sharp iron spikes were driven through it with the points inward and inclined downward, similar to the fingers of a fish-trap. Being thus prepared, some honey (of which the bear is passionately fond) was put in the bottom of the inverted knee, and this put at the place where the bear crossed the fence. In his eagerness to get the honey, Bruin would thrust his muzzle and head down amongst the spikes; and when he would attempt to draw out his head, the spikes would pierce the skin and flesh in such a manner at to prevent him from throwing off the *mask*, and in this blindfolded condition he became an easy prey to his gleeful captors.

During his sojourn here Bowie mixed a little with society, and was very successful in securing a fair portion of the friendship of the better class of the people. As the country improved and landed property became enhanced in value, he sold his land on the Bayou and used the means, thus obtained, in speculating in the purchase of Africans from the notorious Lafitte, who brought them to Galveston, Texas, for sale. James, Resin and myself fitted out some small boats at the mouth of the Calcasieu, and went into the trade on shares. Our plan of operations was as follows:—We first purchased forty negroes from Lafitte at the rate of one dollar per pound, or an average of $140 for each negro; we brought them into the limits of the United States, delivered them to a custom-house officer, and became the informers ourselves; the law gave the informer half of the value of the negroes, which were put up and sold by the United States marshal, and we became the purchasers of the negroes, took the half as our reward for informing, and obtained the marshal's sale for the forty negroes, which entitled us to sell them within the United States. We continued to follow this business until we made $65,000, when we quit and soon spent all our earnings.

James then went into the land speculation and soon made $15,000. This business necessarily caused him to spend much of his time in the woods, where natural inclination also gave the employment a charm peculiarly pleasant to him. He had a *hunting-knife* made, which suited his fancy, by a common blacksmith named Snowden. In after years this knife became famous, owing to some very tragical occurrences which originated as follows:—About the year 1826, James became involved in the political and party squabbles of the day, and his fiery, impulsive nature caused him to enlist all his energies in the strife. At this time he resided in Alexandria, on Red River, and in some of the momentary excitements of the day an altercation took place between him and the sheriff of Rapides Parish, a Mr. Norris Wright, during which Wright shot Bowie in his left breast, while he was unarmed; but had Wright not been rescued by his friends James would have killed him with his fists. This attack so enraged him that he had a neat leather scabbard made for his hunting-knife, and affirmed that he would wear it as long as he lived, which he did. About twelve months after this difficulty, or in September, 1827, the great duel took place at Natchez.*

After my brother recovered from his wounds, he felt as though he had not been well used, or properly treated by some of his political friends, so he determined to leave the United States and go to Texas. For several years he had spent his winters in New-Orleans, but during the time was engaged in no business besides what was connected with his land speculations. He continued to spend these seasons there until he finally disposed of his lands and negroes, which was about the year 1829, or 1830, when he left for Texas with only about a thousand dollars, which he invested there in lands.

He fearlessly launched forth into all the then existing war and strife of that country. His valor and courage recommended him to the chivalrous Mexicans, and in a short time he won a name and distinction in that country. Here he married the daughter of Ex-Governor

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* We have an interesting contemporary account of this extraordinary affair, and also a graphic letter from Judge Taliaferro upon the same subject, which we regret must be postponed to our next.—Ed.

Berrymenda. She lived to have one child, but both mother and child were followed to the grave before he was killed at the Alamo.

During the few years he spent in Texas he had many strange and hazardous adventures, probably the most notable of which was the following. He and Rezin Bowie, with nine others, went in search of a silver mine about 200 miles northwest of San Antonio. While on this expedition they were attacked by about *one hundred and fifty* Camanche Indians. James being well acquainted with the habits and manners of these savages, soon perceived that they were on trail of him and his little party for the purpose of murdering or robbing them, so he availed himself of the first suitable place for defence. He selected a point of woodland jutting out to a point in the prairie where there were great quantities of loose stones, out of which he and his men soon constructed a temporary fort for immediate defence; but before they had completed their work, the savages

"—— Came down like the wolf on the fold.
Like the leaves of the forest when summer is green,
That host with their banners at noon-day were seen;
Like the leaves of the forest when autumn hath blown,
That host in the evening lay withered and strewn."

These modern Parthians, who fight only on horseback, and almost live on horseback, are perhaps the most formidable warriors in the country. They came boldly up within sixty yards of the little rocky fort, and opened a murderous fire upon the inmates. On the first fire they killed a Mr. Castleman, broke the leg of a Mr. Pool, and shot a Mr. Doyal through the body, who, however, recovered afterwards. This left the two Bowies, five other white men and one negro, who had to defend themselves against these merciless wretches, and at the same time nurse and attend their wounded comrades. The Indians continued their attack, riding rapidly round and round the fort, and keeping up an incessant fire. But in the mean time the inmates of the fort were not idle, but they kept up a deadly and effective fire upon their assailants. James on one side and Resin on the other, encouraged and cheered their comrades, and showed them how to *dodge* the shots of the enemy. The fight continued for three or four hours; the savages then retreated a short distance, leaving some fifty or sixty of their dead on the prairie grass, together with a number of dead horses;—

"For there lay the steed with his nostril all wide,
But through it there rolled not the breath of his pride;
And the foam of his gasping lay red on the turf,
And cold as the spray of the rock-beaten surf.
And there lay the rider distorted and pale,
With the gore on his brow and the gore on his mail;
And the tents are all silent, the banners alone,
The lances unlifted, the trumpet unblown."

During the night they carried away the dead bodies of their comrades, and early next morning renewed the attack, and continued to do so for several days, every day forming their line of attack, yet farther and farther off, until they got beyond the reach of gun-shot. Finally, after having killed fully a hundred of the Indians, and their wounded comrades were in such a situation as to be moved, they determined to leave Rocky Fort, which they did in the night, bringing Pool and Doyal safe back to the settlements.

James had many other fights with the Indians and Mexicans, the particulars of which I am unable to furnish you.

He closed his career in the bloody battle of the Alamo, where he was not so fortunate as he was at Rocky Fort, though equally as brave and dauntless, and his rifle was fully as deadly as before.

After the final destruction of all the brave inmates of the Alamo, and when they came to attend to the burial of the dead, tradition says that the Mexican chief officer ordered the remains of James Bowie to be honorably buried by themselves, as he said "he was too great a man to be buried with the common soldiers." He sleeps alone, without any stone or inscription to mark the spot, or say to the passer-by, "here lie the mortal remains of the brave." J. J. B.

ART. V.—THE SPANISH RULE IN LOUISIANA.

THE CONSPIRACY OF LAFRENIERE, NOYAN, MILHET, VILLERE, BOISBLANC, AND OTHERS—1768.

We noticed in our last the forthcoming work of Mr. Gayarré, which embraces a most interesting portion of the history of Louisiana, to wit, that immediately preceding the delivery of the province to Spain.

As soon as the volume appears, it is our intention to examine it with some minuteness, and present a fair and impartial review of its contents. At present we can only extract from the sheets before us an interesting chapter, relating to the course of events and incidents which succeeded the issuing of the judgment of imprisonment, or death, against the abovenamed gentlemen and their compatriots.

The literary public are familiar with the *Essai* of Mr. Gayarré which appeared in the French language, in 1832, and with his later *Histoire de la Louisiane*, more elaborate and complete. Three years since he published a neat little volume upon the Romance of the History of Louisiana, which was a very poetic, graphic and attractive production. Warmed up with the adventures of De Soto, Iberville, Bienville, and the early struggles of the French in the western wilds, his pages were continued pictures. His next work was one of *legitimate* history, published by Harper, based upon the documents obtained from France, and brought down to about the year 1740. This volume, which will be issued in a few weeks, if not out by the time that this is read, completes the whole French history of the state, and brings us down to Spanish times. This volume is far the most interesting of his labors, treating as it does, at great length, of the matters which preceded the delivery to Spain, which were attended with so much bloodshed, and which have, in general, Masan and his companions were immediately transported to Havana, and imprisoned in Fort Moro. It may be as well to state now that the son of Masan went to Madrid, threw himself at the feet of the king, and begged that his father be pardoned, or that he be permitted to take his father's place. The prayer of this generous young man, which was warmly supported by the French embassador, touched the king, who granted a full pardon, not only to Masan, but also to Doucet, Boisblanc, Milhet, Poupet and Petit. None of them returned to Louisiana, and it is believed that they went to reside at the Cap Français in St. Domingo.

Aubry left Louisiana for Bordeaux in the brigantine called *Père de Famille*. This vessel had entered the river Garonne, when she met a heavy storm and went down, near the Tower of Gardouan, with all on board, save the captain, a physician, a sergeant and two sailors, who succeeded in reaching the land in safety. The King, in order to show how much he appreciated the services of Aubry, granted a pension to the brother and to the sister of that officer. Aubry, before his departure from Louisiana, had been offered a high grade in the Spanish army, as a token of satisfaction at the liberal course which he had pursued towards that nation in the colony, but he refused, on the ground that he intended to devote the remnant of his days to the service of his native country. Some there were who thought that those whom they loved so dearly, had unjustly suffered, mostly in consequence of the imprudent denunciations of that officer and of his servility to O'Reilly and the Spaniards. By them his melancholy end was looked upon as an act of the retributive justice of Heaven.

It is related that, among the confiscated slaves of Lafrénière, there was one named Artus, who had the reputation of being an admirable cook. O'Reilly sent for Artus, and said to him: "You are now the King of Spain's property. Until you are sold, you shall be my cook." "You had better change your mind," answered the negro. "I would poison him who ordered my master to be killed." It is also reported that one of Caresse's slaves, whose name was Cupidon, and who was an excellent house servant, refused peremptorily to perform these functions for O'Reilly, because, as he boldly said, "he would not serve his master's assassin." O'Reilly seemed to appreciate the noble sentiment which actuated these faithful slaves, and dismissed them, without resenting the determination which they had both so fearlessly expressed. If these anecdotes are true, they show that negroes are capable of heroic attachment for those that hold them in bondage, and that O'Reilly was not a man of an unamiable disposition.

The bloody execution which took place in Louisiana caused a good deal of excitement in France, and it seems that the French government instructed its agents in Spain, to ascertain what effect it had produced on the Spaniards themselves. I have under my eye a letter written to one of the French ministers by a Mr. Depuyabre, a French agent to Cadiz, in answer to the inquiries which had been addressed to him, and in which he says: "All the relations of that event, which were sent from Louisiana to Havana, agree in blaming the rigor with which General O'Reilly punished the most distinguished citizens of Louisiana. The Spaniards here, and others, whatever nation they belonged to, have expressed their detestation of such an act. You know better than any one else what were the orders of which O'Reilly was the bearer, and you can thereby judge whether that officer kept himself, or not, within the sphere of his powers."

It must be recollected that the Marquis of Grimaldi, on the departure of O'Reilly from Spain to Louisiana, had sent to the Count of Fuentes, the Spanish embassador at the Court of Versailles, a dispatch which was intended to be laid before the French ministry, and in which he had said:

"It seemed proper to invest Don Alexander O'Reilly with these extensive powers, on account of the distance at which we are from that country. But, as the king, whose character is well known, is always inclined to be mild and clement, he has ordered O'Reilly to be informed that his will was, that a lenient course be pursued in the colony, and that expulsion from it be the only punishment inflicted on those who have deserved a more severe one."

It would seem, from this document, that O'Reilly should have contented himself with having expelled from the colony those who had deserved a severer punishment—for instance, the pain of death. But were the instructions shown to the Court of France, and those really given to O'Reilly, of the same nature? That is the question. If O'Reilly received the instructions which are mentioned in the dispatch of the Marquis of Grimaldi, would he have dared to disobey them, and would he, when such strong appeals were made to him to save the lives of Lafrénière and his companions, have had the unblushing effrontery, on refusing that boon, to plead the orders of the king, and thus falsely to throw upon his sovereign the odium of a measure which was contrary to the expressed will of that very sovereign? Had he assumed this responsibility on account of some unforeseen circumstances or reasons, would he not have accounted for those circumstances or reasons in his dispatches to his government? But, far from using the language of apology or exculpation, for having acted with severity, in violation of his positive instructions, he, on the contrary, applauds himself for the extreme lenity of the course he pursued. This is demonstrated by the dispatch which he sent to the Marquis of Grimaldi, to give an account of the closing of the trial and of the execution of the sentence of the court:

"The trial which began here," said he, "against the twelve chiefs, movers and accomplices of the insurrection which took place in this province, is at an end. Six of them having deserved death, were sentenced to be hung; but one of these culprits having died in prison, five only were executed, and, as there is no executioner here, they were shot on the 25th of this month, (October,) at three o'clock of the afternoon. The six others were sentenced to be imprisoned in one of the king's castles, that is, one for life, two for ten years, and three for six years, and the property of the twelve was confiscated.

"The six who were sentenced to be imprisoned will be sent to-day to one of the forts at Havana. I transmit to the captain-general of that place a copy of the judgment, in order that he may proceed to carry it into execution.

"The property of these prisoners had been sequestrated, from the beginning of their trial. I have just given the necessary orders for the liquidation of said property in accordance with the laws, in order that what belongs to the widows and other creditors may be given to them, and the balance be delivered up into the king's treasury.

"This judgment wipes off entirely the insult made to the dignity and authority of the king in this province, and checks the effects of the bad example which had been given to the subjects of his majesty. Every body acknowledges the necessity, the justice, and the clemency of this judgment, which sets up an example ever to be remembered. What renders it still more efficacious, is the diligence with which this affair was conducted, and the incontestable nature of the evidence on which this judgment was founded.

"I will treat, for the future, with marked gentleness, all those who signed the representations addressed to the Council, and it will be a great consolation to the public to know that I shall leave in this colony no painful recollection of that audacious outrage. I will conciliate and tranquillize the public mind by all the means in my power, and nothing will be more conductive to this end, than to let the people know, that all past occurrences shall be forgotten, and that every one shall receive from the government the protection and favor which he may deserve."

This candid exposition which O'Reilly made of his sentiments proves, that he thought himself entitled to much credit for the lenity of his acts. *Everybody*, says he, with exultation, *acknowledges the necessity, the justice and the clemency of this judgment, which sets an example ever to be remembered*. And it must not be forgotten that Governor Aubry, writing to his own government, takes the same view of the course of action adopted by O'Reilly. *I have the honor*, said he to the French minister, *of sending a list of the small number of those whom the general was indispensably obliged to have arrested. This proves his generosity and the kindness of his heart, considering that there are many others, whose criminal conduct would have justified their being treated in the same manner*.

To judge fairly of the feelings and ideas of these men, we must transport ourselves back to the days in which they lived; we must adopt the turn of mind which education, habits and associations had given them, and we must become impregnated with the political, social and moral atmosphere in which they had been born. In this age, the treatment which was inflicted on Lafrénière and his companions may be looked upon as tinged with cruelty, if appreciated with our modern feelings of humanity, and with those notions of right and wrong which now prevail throughout the civilized world. In 1851, Lafrénière and his accomplices would not, probably, have been condemned to an ignominous death, for doing what they did in 1768. They had resisted the exercise of powers which they thought oppressive to them, and which were wielded by an officer whom they believed to be clothed with dubious authority; they had resorted to every means, even violence, not to be severed from that kingdom to which the colony was indebted for its birth. But they had shed no blood, and when experience demonstrated to them that their schemes of being re-annexed to France, or to set up for themselves under an independent government, were visionary; when O'Reilly arrived with such forces as it would have been madness to cope with, they tendered, at once, their full and entire submission to the government of Spain. It must be recollected, however, that a century ago, the slightest attempt against royal authority was considered as one of the most heinous crimes that could be committed, and was punished with a severity which now would not be tolerated by public opinion; and that offences which then were deemed to deserve death, would not now be the cause even of putting a man on his trial. It is not astonishing therefore that both Aubry and O'Reilly should have honestly thought that, to pick out of the rebellious colonists twelve leaders only, six of whom should be shot, and six imprisoned for a greater or lesser period of time, and to grant a full and unconditional pardon to the rest, was an extremely merciful act. Besides, there is no doubt that O'Reilly was moved by considerations of policy. As Spain did not intend to keep up a large military force in Louisiana, it was necessary to produce such an impression on its inhabitants as to prevent the repetition of what had occurred; and, above all, it was expedient to set a salutary example before the other colonies, to deter them from similar enterprises, and to show, in the language used by the Duke of Alba, in the written opinion on the affairs of Louisiana which he presented to the king as a member of his cabinet, *that the king knew and was able to repress any attempt whatever derogatory to the respect due to the royal authority*.

Some there are who accuse O'Reilly of treachery and duplicity, on account of the interpretation which they put on the marked civilities which he proffered to the leaders of the insurrection, when they were introduced to him, and on the exceedingly courteous language which he addressed to them. They believe that these men had a right to infer from O'Reilly's deportment, that their past deeds were forgotten, and that they would not be brought to trial; it is said that O'Reilly lulled them into security, in order to keep them within his reach, and to prevent them from seeking their safety in flight, until he should be ready to arrest, at the same time, all the chiefs of the late revolution whom he had singled out. These suppositions derive some strength, it is true, from the opinion impressed by Boulingy, himself a Spanish officer, who was present at the interview between the delegates of the colonists and O'Reilly, at the Balize, and who said: *that the general sent them back with good hopes that their past faults should be forgotten.* It is not astonishing, therefore, that Lafrénière, Marquis and Milhet should have shared with Bouligny such flattering impressions. The secret intentions of deceit attributed to O'Reilly may have been true; but still, in justice to him, it must be remarked that the extreme courtesy of his language and of his deportment is not sufficient, of itself, to warrant the conclusion that it was dictated by duplicity. It was, on the like occasions, the natural tone of the high-bred gentleman of the time, although it may sound to us as smacking of dissimulation, or affectation. Numerous other instances might be cited of the wrong interpretations to be given to the actions and language of the men of past ages, if, as I have already observed, we judge of them according to the criterion of our present usages and customs. I will, in illustration of my assertion, select one instance only, which is striking.

The Cardinal of Richelieu had been, for many years, presiding as prime minister over the destinies of France, and had defeated more than one conspiracy against his life and power, formed by the highest nobility, by the mother, and the brother of the king, who hated the state of insignificance to which that master mind had reduced them, and often by the king himself, who used to become their secret accomplice, when in one of his fits of disgust at the thraldom in which he was kept by his proud and domineering minister. Now that the cardinal was broken down by disease and fast approaching his grave, his enemies again lost patience, and gathered under the leadership of young Cinq-Mars, who had become the favorite of the weak king. Hardly had the conspiracy been set on foot, when the wily cardinal had become acquainted with all its workings. Determined to strike a last blow, which would be so crushing that it would, for the future, put an end to such enterprises, he appeared to be wrapped up in fancied security, waiting patiently, for two years, with the self-confidence of genius, until the fruit of his revenge be ripe, before he plucked it. Only on the eve of the breaking out of the conspiracy was it, that, although in a dying condition, he came out in his strength of mind, if not of body, and with one single thrust of his crippled foot, demolished instantaneously the structure which had been so laboriously erected against him. He terrified the king out of his little wits, brought down almost to his knees the king's vile brother, Gaston D'Orleans, to ask pardon for his share in the conspiracy, and annihilated all those of his enemies whom he thought worthy of his notice. Cinq-Mars and De Thou were those he had particularly singled out for his vengeance. De Thou, being in prison at Tarascon, where the infirm cardinal had himself transported him, was ordered to the presence of his mortal enemy, to be by him interrogated. The manner in which they met is remarkable. Let it be remembered that both were aware of the relative positions in which they stood to each other. The cardinal had made up his mind to have De Thou's head cut off; De

Thou knew it, and the cardinal was conscious that his intentions were no secret for the prisoner. Therefore there could be no attempt, and there could be no wish, to deceive each other. Yet, see how they behaved when face to face. The cardinal, who was in bed and propped up by cushions, when De Thou was ushered into the room by the guards, greeted him with a gentle salute, and, inviting him to be seated by the bed on which he, the cardinal, was reposing, said, with the utmost suavity of manner: "Sir, I beg you to excuse me for having given you the trouble of coming here." "My Lord," answered De Thou, "I consider the invitation as a favor and an honor." The rest of the interview was in the same style. Was it deceit, irony, affectation or dissimulation? Neither the one nor the other. It was the customary tone of exquisite politeness familiar to two men who were equally mindful of their respective rank and character, and whose minds were so framed, that they never lost sight, for one moment, of the old adage: *that a gentleman is worth another.* Times have changed, and the highest in the land, were he brought before a justice of the peace, not for a matter of life and death, but on a charge of petty trespass, would probably be interrogated in a more commanding tone. But is it to be inferred that, on the occasion I have related, Cardinal Armand Du Plessis, Duke of Richelieu, and the real king of France, acted with hypocrisy towards De Thou?

The inventories made of the property of the twelve gentlemen, whom the decree of the Spanish tribunal had convicted of rebellion, afford interesting proofs of the Spartan simplicity which existed in the colony. Thus the furniture of the bedroom of Madam Villere, who was the wife of one of the most distinguished citizens of Louisiana, and the grand-daughter of De Lachaise, who came to the colony, in 1723, as ordaining commissary, was described as consisting of a cypress bedstead, three feet wide by six in length, with a mattress of corn-shucks and one of feathers on the top, a bolster of corn-shucks, and a coarse cotton counterpane or quilt, manufactured probably by the lady herself, or by her servants; six chairs of cypress wood, with straw bottoms; some candlesticks with common wax, the candles made in the country, &c., &c. The rest of the house was not more splendidly furnished, and the house itself, as described in the inventory, must have looked very much like one of those modest and unpainted little wood structures which are, to this day, to be seen on many parts of the banks of the river Mississippi, and in the Attakapas and Opelousas parishes. They are the tenements of our small planters, who own only a few slaves, and they retain the appellation of *Maisons d'Acadiens, or Acadian houses.* Villere's plantation, situated at the German coast, was not large, and the whole of his slaves, of both sexes and of all ages, did not exceed thirty-two. His friends and brother conspirators, who were among the first gentlemen in the land, did not live with more ostentation. All the sequestrated property being sold, it was found that, after having distributed among the widows and other creditors what they were entitled to, and after paying the costs of the trial and inventories, the royal treasury had nothing or very little to receive. These costs, however, were moderate, for they amounted only to 782 livres, or about $157, for each of the persons convicted.

ART. VI.—SUGAR.

THE MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR—EMBRACING THE CRUSHING OF THE CANE—THE CONSTITUENTS OF THE CANE-JUICE—THE PROCESSES OF DEFECATION, EVAPORATION, CONCENTRATION, GRAVELATION AND CURING.

The canes should never exceed four or five feet in length when they are placed on the feeding board of the mill, otherwise they invariably cause inconvenience, and very frequently, from being crooked, overlapping, in spite of all that the feeders can do to prevent it. Arrived at the feeding-board, the cane-carriers remove the cane-bands with which the bundles are tied; and the feeders must take the greatest care to arrange the canes along the whole length of the rollers, in a regular and even manner. By so doing, twenty-two canes of average size can be very conveniently laid, and be crushed at the same time; supposing the rollers to be four feet in length.

A greater number may be placed at once in the mill, but not conveniently, nor do I think advisably; the great point in feeding being to supply, immediately and cleverly, the place of each cane as it disappears through the mill, so that, reckoned at any moment, the self-same number of canes (twenty-two) will be found passing through the mill. This forms the great difference between the but too common and negligent feeding, which at times crams the mill with perhaps thirty-five canes, whilst at others it has not more than two or three presented to it. The feeding, then, best calculated to produce a large quantity of juice, the steady working of the engine, the least liability to breakage, or the least possible wear and tear of the machinery, is that which is regular, uniform and moderate.

The feeder who directs and assists the course of the saturated cane-stalks towards the second set of rollers, has little more to do than to see that they enter the rollers in a straight and desirable manner. If these rollers are screwed up as tight as they should be, there can be no necessity for his doubling the saturated stalks; as they will not be able, under any circumstances, to pass through the rollers without being thoroughly crushed.

It may be deemed desirable to separate the pure juice expressed, from that of the saturated canes, as so much water is mixed with it; but if intended for immediate manufacture, I do not consider that any good is to be gained by such separation. Indeed, under any circumstances, cane-juice should be clarified immediately it is expressed; or if necessary to keep it for any length of time, fermentation can readily be prevented by very simple means. I therefore do not perceive any ill effect that can arise from the juice, from the two sets of mill rollers being allowed to intermingle.

An important duty appertaining to the mill-house, is to keep the mill-bed constantly free from bits of cane-trash, (which are continually falling from the rollers;) otherwise, in the course of a very short time, they become acid, and communicate a taint to the juice. The mill-bed, therefore, should be cleaned every five or ten minutes; which can be performed by a boy, whose duty should consist in cleaning the mill-bed, juice-gutters, and strainers.

As the juice runs from the mill-bed, it falls into the first, second, and third strainers, in succession; each lying on a step lower than the other, and the material of each strainer being finer than that of the one above it. Thus there is a fall of twenty-one inches, obtained by means of three steps of seven inches each; which steps allow of a small receptacle being made, on each of them, of about two feet square, having raised edges of about two inches high, and a lip protruding over the space occupied by the next (lower) step. Into these spaces of two feet square, the strainers (which are only twenty-two inches square) fit, resting on their lower rims of one inch; so that the bottoms of the strainers are one inch raised above the bottoms or beds of the receptacles. To prevent acidity, sheet lead is used in forming these beds or receptacles; and they are constantly cleared of all matter likely to cause acidity.

A framework answers all the purposes above described, provided the strainers rest on beds of sheet lead. The third or lowest strainer should be of fine wire-gauze; passing through which the juice is cleared of a large quantity of extraneous matter; and a further portion is retained in the last and finest strainer, which hangs over the clarifier.

The juice being now in the boiling-house, we will, previous to tracing it further, proceed to notice the substance it contains.

Cane-juice, as it arrives in the boiling-house, may be held to contain—water, sugar, woody fibre, gluten, green fecula, green wax (chlorophylle), gum, saline matter.

The several qualities vary very much, according to the circumstances under which the cane-plants are grown, and the degree of maturity to which they have arrived at the period of their being cut.

I have not, therefore, stated any proportional parts, as these evidently depend on the many conditions that influence the plant; and no regular and fixed standard can be taken. I shall state, as I proceed, the parts proved by analyses to exist in cane-juice of good and inferior qualities; but from those it would be difficult, if not impossible, to deduce anything like an average division, which could be admitted as a rule in practice.

Water contained in cane-juice varies from seventy to eighty-five parts in 100, and may all be evaporated, except the portion necessary to crystallization.

Sugar resident in expressed juice ranged from five degrees to fourteen degrees of Baume's saccharometer; *id est*, from about 9 lbs. to about 25 lbs. per cent. I myself have never known it so high as 25 per cent.: nor, indeed, higher than 23 lbs.; although it is very probable that juice fully as rich as the former per centage would make it, may have passed through my hands, without my having been aware of it, during the early part of my life as a planter.

It is, however, mentioned by Dutrone, (whose testimony and opinions are entitled to the utmost respect and credence,) that on the same plantation he obtained from canes, at one period of the year, 9 lbs. 3 ozs. only, from 100 lbs. of juice; whereas, at another and more favorable time, he obtained from a similar quantity of juice, 25 lbs. 11 ozs. of sugar. I have myself known a variation, on one plantation, of from eleven to twenty-two per cent. of sugar.

The saccharometer denotes the *density* of cane-juice; but the actual quantity of crystallizable matter will depend on the purity of the juice, and its freedom from nitrogenized and saline matters. Thus, taking juice of a density of ten degrees by the saccharometer,* equal to 18⅓ lbs. of solid extractive matter, we must allow fully 1⅓ lbs. as being uncrystallizable; and in many cases far more.

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* At a temperature of 60 degrees; but at a temperature of 84 degrees, as is common in the sugar-growing colonies, a density of 10 degrees by the saccharometer denotes fully 18 per cent. of pure sugar.

Sugar exists in the cells of the cane-plant, as I have before remarked, both in the form of a limpid fluid, and also as a concrete formation; that is to say, that this limpid saccharine crystallizable fluid, under favorable circumstances, (as a congenial soil, and during hot, dry weather,) becomes so rich, and so perfectly elaborated, that it deposits minute but distinct crystals around the cells which contain it; and these crystals are seen adhering to the whole of the inner membrane of the cells. If there were any means of extracting this matter, (both fluid and crystalline,) without causing an admixture with the other substances forming the sap of the cane, no doubt that we should be able to obtain a perfectly pure and crystallized sugar by means of simple evaporation alone. But it unfortunately occurs, that, by the mode of expression now universally adopted, not only is the saccharine crystallizable fluid mixed up with the nitrogenized and other matters, to its great injury, but the crystals of sugar which have been already deposited in the cells are, for the most part, left in the cane-trash, adhering to the cellular membranes.

From this latter cause it is, that a saturation of the cane-stalks with hot water is advised, previous to their undergoing the final pressure by the second set of mill-rollers.

Woody fibre, or *lignin*, are terms used to designate the solid structure of the cane-stalk, particles of which become intermixed with the cane-juice, from the breaking down and crushing which the stalk undergoes whilst passing through the mill. Some of these particles are so large and coarse, as to be easily retained by the wire-gauze strainers, through which the juice runs on its passage from the mill to the clarifiers, whereas others, again, are so finely comminuted, that they pass through the strainers into the clarifier.

Many authors draw a marked distinction between woody fibre and the cellular tissue of plants; which latter they name cellulose; but it does not appear that there are any just grounds for so separating them; for they are as identical in composition with one another, as the woody fibre or cellular tissue of one plant is identical with similar substances of other plants. There is, however, a decided difference between the composition of wood, and that of woody fibre, (properly so called,) as in the former from three to five per cent. of foreign substances are comprised, which of course have no existence in the composition of the latter. Besides which, in analyzing woody fibre and cellular tissue, and comparing results, the nature and properties of the substances which had been contained in the cells of the latter, are but too frequently lost sight of; although, on reflection, it is evident that the results of the analysis must be influenced by these substances. For instance, in the cane-plant there are cells in which the saccharine fluid is elaborated, and even sugar deposited; there are also various other cells, in which various other organizations are carried on: it therefore occurs, that according to the peculiar nature of the different substances organized in these cells, so is this cellular tissue more or less encrusted, and impregnated by them; consequently affording different results under analysis.

Hence the relative proportions of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen, are found to differ; and erroneous deductions are drawn therefrom, to the mystification and confusion of the general reader.

The very minutely-divided particles of woody fibre that are existent in the cane-juice which enters the clarifier, are more or less enveloped by matter, which causes them readily to rise to the surface of the liquid during the process of clarification: I have even seen a large quantity rise o the surface in the cold receivers. There is, then, no difficulty in getting id of this substance.

Gluten is a substance that presents itself under varied forms, according to the manner in which it is acted on by the different matters with which it comes in contact. This circumstance has furnished a befitting opportunity for chemists to enrich their nomenclature with many singular new names: thus we have gluten, zymome, gliadine, legumin, vegetable albumen, fibrin, casein, diastase, *cum multis aliis!*

Now, the planter will not be displeased to learn, that, notwithstanding this formidable array of names, they all resolve themselves into one substance—*gluten;* but as the term vegetable albumen is very commonly used, I shall employ that designation, as well as gluten, whenever I find occasion to do so: it being understood that they are one and the same substance. In cane-juice, gluten exists in solution, until the acid which holds it dissolved is evaporated by means of heat, or by saturating it with an alkaline solution; which causes the gluten to become insoluble or coagulated, so that its particles, meeting together, adhere to each other, and rise to the surface in the form of thick scum, which is often called vegetable albumen. All cane-juice contains a proportion of the free acids: at times so great that, on leaving the mill, it produces a slightly acid reaction on litmus paper; whereas, generally, they are not to be detected by that test, being combined with gluten, &c. so as to present no symptoms of their existence. But on the application of an alkali, (temper lime,) a union immediately takes place between the alkali and the acid, and the gluten forthwith assumes the form of coagula, and becomes insoluble in water. A further application of alkali would have the effect of re-dissolving the coagulated gluten, and holding it in a state of solution; until an acid re-agent could be used to saturate the alkali, which would cause the gluten once more to assume the form of coagula. Thus we see that a very great deal of nicety is required in what is termed tempering cane-juice, or cane-liquor; and we perceive at once one great reason why it is that an alkaline menstruum (temper) in excess is so injurious, viz.: as being not only sufficient to saturate the acid which holds the gluten dissolved, but effecting the re-solution of the coagula about to form.*

Again, we find that by subjecting fresh cane-juice to a moderate heat, (of from 140 to 168 degrees Fahr.,) the volatile acids holding the gluten in solution are disengaged and evaporated, leaving the gluten in the form of flaky coagula. There has been a very great deal of argument amongst the most eminent chemists, as to the fact of an acid being present in cane-juice; as well as to the nature of that acid. Bergman appears to have been the first who ascribed the utility of lime (temper) in sugar manufacture, to its action on the acids contained (in combination) in the juice of the cane. Proust declared the presence of large quantities of malic acid in cane-juice, analyzed by him in Spain. Dr. Higgins, following the same idea of an acid being present, expressed it as his opinion that the fecula (meaning gluten) in cane-juice was held in solution partly by water and partly by carbonic acid; which acid was expelled when the juice was subjected to a heat of 145 degrees Fahr., and the fecula forthwith rose to the surface as a coagulated scum. He also held that the application of lime would have the same effect on the fecula; only that it would enter into combination with the carbonic acid, forming carbonate of lime. Raspail says, "The saccharine substance does not exist alone in solution in the sap of any plant, in sufficient abundance to afford a lucrative return for the trouble of extraction. It is accompanied by gum, different salts, and various acids, which the current of the vascular circulation carries along. Besides, as in most cases this juice is obtained by expression, it necessarily carries with it the green fecula, and fragments both of the ligneous and glutinous textures; and these last (glutinous textures) may then become more or less soluble, and assume more or less the character of mucilage, by combining with the free acids of the saccharine solution. I am persuaded that the lime that is used in the extraction of sugar is of no other use than to saturate these acids, and thus restore to the gluten its original insolubility, so that it may coagulate and be skimmed off; enveloping in its subtance all those textures impregnated with green or gummy matter; and that in this way it acts as the first means of clarification."

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* It has been shown by Liebig, Raspail, and other celebrated chemists, that gluten, or vegetable albumen, contains nitrogen in the form of an ammoniacal salt, which is decomposed by the action of heat, or of an alkali, (as lime.)

I consider it quite useless to multiply instances of opinions similar to these: nor do I deem it of any use mentioning others of a contrary tendency; for it may, in my opinion, be held as quite clear, that although cane-juice may present no appearance of an acid—not even to affect litmus paper in any way—yet that the action of an alkaline solution, or heat, will at once make manifest its actual presence. The reason of this, as I before said, is because the acid is in combination with the glutinous textures (gluten) which it keeps dissolved.

The action of heat certainly disengages the acid, and causes the gluten or albumen to assume the form and character of coagula; but it is by no means certain that the acid in all cases is evaporated: this appears to me to depend on the nature of the particular acid in combination with the gluten; for we find, in very good cane-juice, that a moderate heat is sufficient to expel the acid, and coagulate the gluten, (thus clarifying the juice;) and that a further heat in the boilers will bring it to a state of concentration, and excellent sugar will result, without a particle of lime being used from first to last.*

How does this happen, unless it be that the acid is of a very volatile nature; so that, on the application of a moderate heat, it not only becomes disengaged from the glutinous textures, but is entirely evaporated from the liquid, leaving these glutinous textures to subside as precipitates, or rise to the surface as scum.

In this case, the use of lime would do a positive harm, as the acid has evaporated; and the feculencies being entirely separated, nothing is left for it to act on but the sugar, which it would therefore decompose.

The case is clear, that, as the acid has been expelled, and the feculencies entirely removed, nothing remains to be done, but to evaporate the water which holds the sugar in solution.

On the other hand, cane-juice, at times, contains an acid which is not of the volatile character above denoted; for instance, fresh cane-juice has been known to show no symptoms of acidity when tested with litmus paper, but after being (carefully) clarified by heat alone, the liquor was found to be decidedly acid, palpably affecting litmus paper: and on a further clarification (in another clarifier) by heat, *id est*, the heat being carried to the boiling point, a thick scum was thrown up; which being skimmed off, the liquor was found to be very perceptibly increased in acidity. A solution of lime being added, until the liquor assumed a neutral character, a very slight scum arose; but on making the liquor rather more alkaline, a further quantity of scum rose to the surface: but not any great portion.

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* The juice of canes grown on a calcareous soil, or on a soil which does not furnish ammonia in excess (nor has had it applied in manures,) is found to contain very little gluten, and, consequently, will very frequently furnish good sugar without any lime being used.

This liquor, concentrated, furnished ordinary sugar, but a large proportion of molasses; which arose from the defecation being incomplete, and from the disengaged acids having decomposed a portion of the sugar, and changed it into glucose.

Some of the same kind of juice clarified (at the same time) by means of lime and heat, and in the boilers treated with a further supply of lime, boiled well, and gave good sugar; much better than the former, and with far less molasses.

These facts proved to me, that in certain cases the acid is by no means volatile; and I am sure that the experience of numerous planters can attest the formation (if I may be allowed the term) of an acid subsequent to clarification, which induces the boilerman to put lime in the second tache even. The error committed in the first of the two experiments just recited was, that on the appearance of an acid reaction on litmus paper, the second clarification should have been effected by means of lime water, whilst the heat was kept as before; but by applying no lime, and increasing the heat until the liquor boiled, of course the separation of the flocculent coagula was rendered impracticable, except by subsidence or filtration; which even would have been but partially successful, seeing that the liquor was so acid.

These facts lead us to judge, that in the coagulations of the glutinous textures contained in cane-juice, certain acids are set free, the character of which is at times extremely volatile; whilst at others they are not so. The saccharometer and thermometer are instruments of great utility and value to the sugar manufacturer; and I think the possession of two other instruments would greatly facilitate the operations in the boiling-house, and render them much more certain and secure from loss. The instruments I allude to are an *alkalimeter* and an *acidimeter*; the one to denote an excess of alkali, and the other an excess of acid. In the transformations which are effected in cane-liquor during clarification and subsequent evaporation, we have not only those produced by lime-water, but also those produced by the action of heat.

By the present modes of manufacture pursued in colonial boiling-houses, no certainty attends the operation; even many years of experience and constant practice do not suffice to assure the oldest boilermen, in cases where the liquor is bad and intractable. But were instruments of the kind named placed in the hands of an ordinarily intelligent boilerman, no hesitation or difficulty would be felt. I much fear that such a result could not be hoped for from the use of litmus paper, as its employment could scarcely be entrusted to negro or native boilermen.

The acids which discover themselves during the process of evaporation, appear to be altogether ascribable to the presence of gluten or other azotized compounds still remaining in the cane-liquor; for if a solution of pure sugar be evaporated at ordinary temperatures, no acidity results.

Gluten contains nitrogen in the form of ammonia; and it is asserted that during the evaporation of cane-juice at a high temperature, a portion of this ammonia is evaporated and a portion is decomposed, hydrogen gas being evolved, and the liberated nitrogen immediately combining with the oxygen of the liquid, forming nitric acid. It is likewise believed, that cane-liquor containing gluten evolves carbonic acid gas during evaporation at a high temperature, by the carbon of the gluten absorbing the oxygen of the water, which it immediately gives off as carbonic acid gas; and that, as the process of evaporation proceeds towards concentration, (that is to say, when the cane-liquor has become syrup,) the carbon of the gluten continues its absorption of oxygen; which, however, is no longer derived from the water, but from the sugar, which, by the extraction of its oxygen, it decomposes: hence sugar containing gluten is always undergoing decomposition. Indeed, the nature of gluten,[*] its numerous transformations and its peculiar properties, have furnished matter for unlimited arguments, which certainly fill many volumes; it is not therefore desirable to enter more at length than I have done into such an interminable subject, but I hope what I have stated will suffice to convey to the planter all the information he requires on this point.

A menstruum composed of creosote very much diluted with water, has the effect of coagulating gluten (in its various forms) to a remarkable degree; the knowledge of which fact leads me to imagine that it may possibly be useful in defecating cane-juice. But the most delicate test that we have of the presence of albumen (*ergo* gluten) in any liquid, is corrosive-sublimate, (bi-chloride of mercury,) which is so extremely effectual, that if a single drop of the saturated solution or corrosive-sublimate be let fall into a liquid containing only the two-thousandth part of albumen, it will immediately occasion a milkiness, and produce a white, curdy precipitate. Corrosive-sublimate is, however, one of the most virulent poisons that we know of, and the bare mention of its use in clarification may occasion great dread; but I am by no means certain that it may not be used by a careful operator with success.

Speaking of its employment for the removal of whatever vegetable albumen (gluten) remains in cane-liquor after clarification in the first clarifier, I will suppose that a very dilute solution of corrosive-sublimate be (gradually) added to such liquor, until the curdy coagula present themselves; and then an alkaline solution (lime-water) to saturate the acid set free.

In this case, the vegetable albumen instantly combines with the calomel in the corrosive-sublimate, forming a white flocculent precipitate; whilst a portion of hydrochloric acid is set free, which is immediately rendered neutral by the lime, with which it combines. Orfila has proved by experiment, that the precipitate, in cases of this kind, is a compound of calomel and albumen, which is entirely inert.[†] I do not, of course, imagine that such an agent as this can be employed in boiling-houses: but the facts stated are very interesting to the inquiring and intelligent planter.

(To be continued.)

ART. VII.—ADULTERATION OF ARDENT SPIRITS.

ARGUMENT FOR THE TEE-TOTALERS.[‡]

1. **Beer.**—This favorite beverage is greatly adulterated, and that too with substances detrimental to health in the extreme. The brewer should not use any ingredients in his brewings except malt and hops; but it too often happens that those who suppose they are drinking beer made of these ingredients only, are drinking a compound made up in the most hor-

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[*] Gluten is coagulated by alcohol; sulphuric, and other acid; lime, and other alkalis.

[†] Toxicologie, vol. i.

[‡] One of the most valuable works of the day, is a neat little volume from the press of Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia, and from the pen of Dr. Byrn, of the University of New York, entitled "A Treatise on the Adulterations of Food and Drink." Every man should get it and read it. Every page is worth the price of the book. For the sake of humanity we give further publicity to what the author says in regard to some of our too popular drinks.

rid manner. And it is not the poor alone that are thus deceived, but it is all classes of society that are exposed to the nefarious fraud.

Beer is not only adulterated with unwholesome ingredients, by retail grocers, but the brewers are in the habit of mixing up substances in their enchanting caldrons that are revolting to think of. To illustrate to what extent this sophistication, and in what manner, it has been carried on in breweries and other places, I will give an extract from the British laws on this subject, viz.: "No druggist, vender of or dealer in drugs, or chemist, or other person, shall sell or deliver to any licensed brewer, dealer in, or retailer of beer, knowing him to be such, or shall sell or deliver to any person on account of, or in trust for any such brewer, dealer or retailer, any liquor called by the name of or sold as coloring, from whatever material the same may be made, or any material or preparation other than unground brown malt, for darkening the color of worts or beer, or any liquor or preparation made use of for darkening the color of worts or beer, or any molasses, honey, vitriol, quassia, cocculus indicus, grains of paradise, guinea pepper, or opium, or any extract or preparation to be used in worts or beer for or as substitute for malt or hops; and if any druggist shall offend, in any of these particulars, such liquor, preparation, molasses, &c., shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of excise, and the person so offending shall, for each offence, forfeit £500."

This is given merely to put people in this country to thinking. It must be seen from this article in England, that the public could not consider themselves safe, and petitioned for the law, an extract of which is given above, and which law now stands in full force. If persons have the audacity, under the crown, to do such diabolical deeds, what will they not do in this land of boasted liberty, where they know the laws are not so stringent on this point.

Although this is a land of freedom, and thank God that it is, we should not allow those that manufacture such articles as are for public consumption, to make them poisonous, to deal the weapons of disease and death amongst thousands. One adulteration of beer consists in adding quassia, which gives the beer a bitter taste, and this is a substitute for hops; but hops possess a more agreeable aromatic flavor, and there is reason also to believe that they render beer less liable to spoil by keeping; a property which does not belong to quassia. It requires but little discrimination to distinguish very clearly the peculiar bitterness of quassia in adulterated beer. Vast quantities of the shavings of this wood are sold in a half torrified and ground state to disguise its obvious character; and to prevent its being recognized among the waste material of the brewers.

Wormwood has likewise been used by fraudulent brewers. Beer made bitter by quassia never keeps well unless it be stored in a place where the temperature of the surrounding atmosphere is much higher than the apartment where it is kept, and this is not so easy to accomplish in large establishments.

The use of boiling the worts of beer with hops is partly to communicate a peculiar aromatic flavor which the hop contains, partly to cover the sweetness of undecomposed saccharine matter, and also to separate, by virtue of the gallic acid and tannin it contains, a portion of a peculiar vegetable mucilage, somewhat resembling gluten, which is still diffused through the beer.

The compound thus made separates into small flakes like those of curdled soap; and by this means the beer is not so liable to spoil, for nothing contributes to the conversion of beer, or any other vinous fluid, into vinegar, more than mucilage. Hence, also, all full-bodied and clammy ales, abounding in mucilage, and whichare generally ill-fermented, do not keep as perfect ale ought to do.

Quassia is, therefore, unfit as a substitute for hops, and even some hops are preferable to others; for nitrate of silver and acetate of lead produce a more abundant precipitate from an infusion of one sample than another; the difference may consist in the time at which the hops are gathered from the vine. Capsicum (Cayenne pepper) and grains of paradise, two very acrid substances, are made use of to give a pungent taste to weak, insipid beer. From the foregoing facts, it must be obvious that the adulteration of ale is not a matter of imagination.

The fraudulent grocer has a process by which he can make new beer appear old, and thus more readily sell it. The process consists in an admixture of sulphuric acid (oil vitriol) with the beer. An imitation of the age of eighteen months is thus produced in an instant. This is technically called "*to bring beer forward*," or "*make it hard*."

It can be seen at a glance that the practice is a bad one. The genuine, old, or entire beer, of the honest brewer, is quite a different compound; it has a rich, generous, full-boiled taste, without being acid, and having a vinous odor; but it may, perhaps, not be generally known that this kind of beer always affords less proportion of alcohol than is produced from mild beer. If, on the other hand, the brewer has too large a stock of old beer on his hands, recourse is had to an opposite practice of converting stale, half-spoiled, or sour beer into mild beer, by the simple admixture of an alkali or alkaline earth.

Oyster-shell powder and subcarbonate of potash or soda are usually employed. These substances neutralize the excess of acid, and render sour beer somewhat palatable. These sophistications may be considered at first as minor crimes, practised by fraudulent brewers, when compared with other methods employed by them, which render beer noxious to health, by the addition of substances absolutely injurious. To increase the intoxicating quality of beer, the deleterious vegetable substance, called *cocculus indicus*, and the extract of this poisonous berry, technically called "*black extract*," or by some "*hard mullum*," are employed.

Opium, tobacco, nux vomica, and extract of poppies, have also been used.

That a minute portion of an unwholesome ingredient taken daily in beer, cannot fail to be productive of mischief, admits of no doubt; and there is reason to believe that a small quantity of narcotic substance, (and cocculus indicus is a powerful narcotic substance,) daily taken into the stomach, together with an intoxicating liquor, is more certain in its effects than it would be without the liquor.

The effects may be gradual; and a strong constitution, especially if it be assisted with constant and hard labor, may counteract the destructive consequences perhaps for many years, but it never fails to show its baneful effects at last. Let me cite one circumstance in proof of this: It is a well established fact that porter drinkers and beer drinkers are very liable to apoplexy and palsy; and here we have an explanation of it—the spirits and the narcotic substance, keeping a constant afflux of blood to the head, produce the disease. Salt is also added to beer to increase the thirst of the consumers. Sulphate of iron (green vitriol) is added to beer sometimes to give it the property of frothing.

Detection of Frauds in Beer.—The detection of the adulterations of beer with deleterious vegetable substances, unfortunately is, as yet, beyond the reach of chemical science. Some persons may ask, "How then is it known they are put into it?" By the materials being found in their possession, and they could give no excuse why they had them, and by the undue stupefying effects of the beer.

Sulphate of iron may be detected by evaporating the beer to dryness, and burning away the vegetable matter obtained, by the action of chlorate of potash in a red-hot crucible.

The sulphate of iron will be left behind among the residue in the crucible, which, when dissolved in water, may be assayed for the constituent parts of the salt, namely, iron and sulphuric acid; for the former, by tincture of galls, ammonia, and prussiate of potash; and for the latter, by muriate of barytes.

If beer has been made hard by sulphuric acid, it affords a white precipitate (sulphate of barytes) by dropping into it a solution of acetate or muriate of barytes; and this precipitate, when collected by straining the mass, and after having been dried and heated red-hot for a few minutes in a platina crucible, does not disappear by the addition of nitric or muriatic acid. I know this is a test only applicable for professional men, and am sorry that more accurate tests could not be given, and more so about the narcotic materials, which should, be detected, if possible. Should a second edition of this work be called for, I hope to be able to give some test for them and many others that are now obscure. Untiring researches after truth seldom fail to bring forth its reward; and, laboring under this conviction, I will use my best efforts to detect fraud wherever I can.

2. BRANDY.—Brandy is adulterated with many articles. The brownish yellow color, concerning which many are mistaken, thinking it is a color given to it by some dyewood or burnt sugar, is nothing more than the color acquired by being kept in vessels of oak-wood.

Some retail dealers, indeed not a few, sell under the name of brandy, an article made up of alcohol diluted with water, and colored with something to give it the appearance of being "*old French*." The taste of this spurious brandy is different from that of the genuine article, having a somewhat metallic taste, and on adding a little per-sulphate of iron, the color does not change, as it does when pure, to a black, inky color.

Copper is often found in brandy, owing to the vessels in which it was distilled being made of that metal. It is easy enough to detect this by the following process: "Take some of the brandy and pour into a glass; then take a smooth, bright piece of iron of any kind and immerse into it, and immediately a copper color will be observed on the iron, if there is any copper present."

Perhaps one of the worst frauds practised in brandy, as regards its influence on the human system, is the acetate of lead, which is added to the brandy for the purpose of clarifying it. Its presence can be detected by passing a stream of sulphureted hydrogen gas through it, when immediately a black precipitate of the sulphuret of lead is the result.

Grains of paradise and Guinea pepper are put into weak brandy to give it the taste of a strong brandy. The flavor which characterizes the *French brandy*, and which is owing to a small portion of a peculiar essential oil contained in it, is imitated by distilling British molasses spirit over wine lees; but this spirit, prior to being distilled over wine lees, is previously deprived in part of its peculiar disagreeable flavor by rectification over fresh-burnt charcoal and quicklime.

Oak sawdust and spirituous tincture of raisin-stones are likewise used to impart to brandy a ripe taste, resembling brandy long kept in oaken vessels, and a somewhat oily consistence, so as to form a durable froth at its surface, when strongly agitated in a vial. Many other frauds could be enumerated, but I think it useless, as the means of detecting them could not be appreciated by those unacquainted with the delicate operations in chemistry.

3. GIN.—Of this much could be said, but it would be of more interest to the distillers than any one else, and as they generally "know how to

manage to a good advantage," it will not be necessary for me to instruct them further on the subject.

4. PORTER.—All that relates to the adulterations in porter, can be found under the head of "Beer," the two being prepared in nearly the same manner.

5. RUM.—There are many foreign substances put into rum, such as oak sawdust, spirituous tincture of raisin-stones, &c., to give it the ripe taste of old rum, but they are difficult to detect by simple means.

6. WINES.—There are few of those commodities which are the objects of commerce that are adulterated to a greater extent than wine. Every person that is conversant with the subject is aware that wine is very inferior in this country when compared with the wine in France and some other countries.

The adulterations of wine consist in part of the following:

Alum is added to young and meagre red wines for the purpose of brightening their color. Brazil wood, or the husks of elder-berries are employed to impart a deep, rich purple tint to red port of a pale, faint color; gypsum is used to render cloudy white wines transparent; additional astringency is imparted to immature red wines by means of oak-wood sawdust and the husks of filberts; a mixture of spoiled foreign and home-made wines is converted into the wretched compound frequently sold by the name of "*genuine old Port.*"

Many expedients are resorted to for the purpose of communicating particular flavors to insipid wines. Thus a peculiar flaver is produced by bitter almonds; factitious port wine is flavored with a tincture drawn from the seed of raisins; and the ingredients employed to form the *bouquet* of high flavored wines, are sweet-brier, orris-root, cherry laurel water, and elder-flowers.

The flavoring ingredients used by manufacturers, may all be purchased by those dealers in wine who are initiated in the *mysteries* of the trade; and even a small receipt book for preparing them, and the whole mystery of *managing* all sorts of wines, is kept for sale amongst them.

There are persons in most large cities that are daily employed in the transmutation of liquors, and by the power of drugs and incantations, can raise in our streets the choicest products of the hills and valleys of France. They can squeeze Bordeaux out of the sloe, and draw champagne from an apple.

The particular and separate department in this factitious wine trade, called *crusting*, consists in lining the interior surface of empty wine bottles, in part, with a red crust of a super-tartrate of potash, by suffering a saturated hot solution of this salt, colored red with a decoction of Brazil wood, to crystallize within them; and after this simulation of maturity is perfected, they are filled with the compound called port wine. Other artisans are regularly employed in staining the lower extremities of bottle corks with a fine red color, to appear, on being drawn, as if they had been long in contact with the wine.

The preparation of an astringent extract, to produce from spoiled home-made wine a genuine old port, by mere admixture; or impart to weak wine a rough, austere taste, a fine color and a peculiar flavor, forms one branch of the business of particular wine-dealers; while the mellowing and restoring of spoiled white wines is the occupation of men who are called "*refiners of wine.*"

I have stated that a crystalline crust is formed on the interior surface of bottles, for the purpose of misleading the untaught into a belief that the wine contained in them is of a certain age. A corresponding operation is performed on the wooden cask; the whole interior of which is stained artificially with a crystalline crust of super-tartrate of potash, artificially affixed in a manner precisely similar to that before stated.

Thus the wine merchant, after bottling off a pipe of wine, is enabled to impose on the understanding of his customers, by taking to pieces the cask, and exhibiting the beautiful dark-colored and fine crystalline crust, as an indubitable proof of the age of the wine; a practice by no means uncommon to flatter the vanity of those who pride themselves in their acute discrimination of wines.

These, with many other sophistications, which have long been practised with impunity, are considered as legitimate by those who pride themselves for their skill in the art of managing, or according to the familiar phrase, "*doctoring wines*." They allege, in exculpation of them, that though deceptive they are harmless; but if we could admit this as a palliation, yet they form only one department of an art which includes other processes of a tendency absolutely *criminal*.

Several well-authenticated facts have convinced me that the adulteration of wine with substances deleterious to health, is practised oftener than is, perhaps, suspected; and it would be easy to give some instances of very serious effects having arisen from wines contaminated with poisonous substances. One of the most dangerous adulterations of wine is by some preparation of *lead*, which possesses the property of stopping the progress of acescence of wine, and also of rendering white wines, when muddy, transparent. The wine merchant will pretend, as an excuse, that this is the only process known of rapidly recovering ropy wines.

He persuades himself that such a small quantity of lead employed for that purpose is perfectly harmless, and that not an atom of lead remains in the wine. Chemical analysis proves the contrary; and the practice of clarifying spoiled white wines by means of lead, must be pronounced as unpardonable.

Lead, in whatever form it be taken into the stomach, occasions, as is now too well known, terrible diseases; and wine, adulterated with the minutest quantity of it, will, sooner or later, undermine the general health. The merchant or dealer who practises this dangerous cheat, adds the crime of *murder* to that of fraud, and deliberately scatters the poison amongst those consumers who contribute to his emolument.

If to debase the current coin of the country be denounced as a criminal offence, what punishment should be awarded to those who convert into a poison a liquid used for HOLY PURPOSES, that which of all others is the most sacred thing on earth. Oh! will the day ever come when the God of nature will in vengeance look down on this wholesale murder? It seems that no law of man is made to prevent it.

Wine may become accidentally impregnated with lead. It is well known that bottles in which wine has been kept, are usually cleaned by means of *shot*, which, by their rolling motion, detach the super-tartrate of potash from the sides of the bottles. This practice, which is so often pursued by wine merchants, may give rise to serious consequences by the shot accidentally becoming wedged in the bottom of the bottle.

Carbonate of soda, and also carbonate of lime and potassa, are sometimes made use of to destroy the acidity of sour wines. Brandy is also added to poor wine to prevent decomposition, and give it strength. These constitute most of the frauds practised in fabricating wine.

Test for Lead.—Pour into a glass two ounces of wine and pass through it some sulphureted hydrogen gas, as directed previously in this work, when speaking of cheese, and the dark brown or black color will be seen.

Test for Alum.—Take one ounce of the wine and dilute with an equal bulk of water, rain-water or distilled water, if it can be had. Let fall into it, gradually, a solution of the muriate of barytes. If a copious white precipitate ensues, which does *not* disappear by the addition of *pure* nitric acid, the presence of the alum is proved. Carbonate of lime may be detected by evaporating two ounces of the wine to one-eighth of its volume, then adding to the remaining wine twice its volume of alcohol. The tartrate and sulphate of lime are precipitated, and the acetate of lime dissolved. The solution is then strained, and carefully evaporated to dryness.

The strained solution in water gives a precipitate, very abundant with oxalate of ammonia, and gives out the smell of vinegar, when decomposed by oil of vitriol or sulphuric acid.

Wine colored with the juice of bilberries, or elder-berries, or Campeachy wood, produces with acetate of lead a deep blue precipitate; and Brazil wood, red sanders, and "the red best," produce a color which is precipitated red by acetate of lead. Wine colored by the "beet root" is also rendered colorless by lime-water; but the weakest acid brings it back.

7. Whiskey.—Though there are many adulterations in this article, they are of such a nature that it would be useless to dwell on them, as I could not give as simple tests as would be understood by any but chemists. Suffice it to say, that they are not so dangerous in their action on the system as many others put into spirituous liquors.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE.

The official returns of the Treasury Department show a very rapid augmentation of the international trade with Great Britain, the exports of United States produce to that country being in 1852 nearly three times that of 1842. The re-export of foreign goods to Great Britain has also largely increased, but the importations thence have not preserved the same ratio of improvement. The whole quantity of merchandise imported into the Union in 1851, was 191 millions, paying duty $49,017,000, an average of $25.6 per cent. In 1850 the import was 155½ millions, and the duties $25.5 per cent.; and this has been nearly the annual average of duties under the present tariff. In 1846, the last year of the former tariff, the dutiable importation was $96,924,000, and the gross duties $30,000,000, or about 31 per cent. The actual difference between the average duty now and under the former law, is therefore 5½ per cent. But it is alleged in certain quarters that the under valuation of invoices by the present system, reduces the actual average upon the value to a much greater extent than the actual figures show. This may be, and undoubtedly is the case, because stringent laws always invite evasion, to some extent; but that it is so in any very considerable degree, the general current of trade does not show. The diminution which has taken place in duties upon food and raw materials in England, has, fulfilling the object intended by those modifications, largely promoted the importation of those raw materials and food which enter into the successful prosecution of English industry. The United States have furnished a large proportion of those products, and, as a consequence, have taken more freely of the results of English industry, but in a series of years the figures show a balance in favor of England; that is to say, only twice in fifteen years have the importations from England exceeded the exportation to that country.

The following table shows the annual importation thence and exports thither, distinguishing domestic from foreign goods:

IMPORTS FROM AND EXPORTS TO GREAT BRITAIN.

		EXPORTS.		
	Imports.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total Exports.
1837	41,886,193	49,685,206	4,897,364	54,582,570
1838	44,861,678	50,623,626	1,555,864	52,179,490
1839	65,964,588	55,971,878	1,954,364	57,926,242
1840	33,737,699	54,202,176	5,125,186	59,327,362
1841	46,662,815	46,165,735	3,386,538	49,552,273
1842	34,204,249	38,254,511	3,012,419	41,266,930
1843, 9 months	26,313,499	39,720,951	1,121,801	40,842,752
1844	42,091,404	47,794,124	1,142,096	48,936,220
1845	45,500,903	44,234,279	4,922,180	49,156,459
1846	45,160,020	45,500,957	1,809,368	47,310,325
1847	67,598,628	86,266,935	1,028,422	87,295,357
1848	61,846,119	67,762,741	8,964,012	76,726,753
1849	61,154,538	76,628,294	1,971,776	78,600,070
1850	75,159,424	68,733,730	4,436,643	73,170,373
1851	93,847,886	109,531,712	8,414,403	117,946,115

The year 1847 embraced the large exports of food to supply the unusual scarcity of that year. The sum of the exports of domestic produce for four years since and four years before that year as compared with the imports of the same period, show results as follows:

	1843-46.	1848-51.	Increase.
Imports	159,065,822	292,008,167	132,942,345
Exports	177,250,311	322,656,478	145,406,167
Excess of exports	18,184,489	30,648,311	12,453,622

The increased trade between the two countries has been nearly ninety per cent. in four years. In the last year the product of California has swollen the exportation of the proceeds of American industry, but in the previous three years the international movement of specie had been unimportant. It is a necessary result of the surplus production of gold, that large quantities should be exported. It is in that respect with nations as with individuals. California has always been possessed of gold, but derived no benefit from it, but in parting with it to other countries, and they have sold it very cheap. Severe as has been the labor of procuring it, it has been exchanged for articles which require less labor in the production, and the immediate operators have not profited much by it. It is probable, however, that had the labor which has been expended in the California gold mines been employed in the older states, it would have produced nearly as much wealth, but of a description to have been consumed on the spot. Gold is not subject to consumption, and its production beyond a certain point must be surplus, and results in the extended commerce of the country. It stimulates, however, all other industries. The shoe trade of Massachusetts, has, for instance, been stimulated into great prosperity by the demand for California, but the gold received in exchange will go to Europe. Although the commercial balance is annually due to the United States from Great Britain, yet the reverse is the case with France—the importations from that country generally exceed the exports thither by a large figure.

Thus, for the last four years the movement has been as follows:

	1848-51.		
	Specie.	Merchandise.	Total.
Import	901,093	110,748,299	111,649,392
Export	15,970,979	57,146,861	74,137,830
Excess of imports		53,601,438	34,511,562
" exports	$16,079,876		

The balance in favor of France is a little more than the balance against England, and the latter country has not only to meet the bills running upon her from France for this balance, but also for the balance on the China trade, and it is the success with which the "Peel policy" was carried out that enables her to do so from the proceeds of the produce she buys of us. The modifications of the cost of raw materials and food, through the removal of duties and changes in the navigation laws, have stimulated her industry to demand greater supplies of produce, which, as we see, meet the demands upon her from other countries for American account. If, however, the invoices which she sends were undervalued to the extent charged in certain quarters, it would show itself in the exchanges. But this is not the case. The balance shown to be in English hands, by the returns, suffices to meet the adverse balances in other quarters without disturbance.

The following is a sort of account current with France for 1851:

IMPORTS FROM FRANCE.

Animals	$39,743	Cotton, tamboured	535,057
Paintings	6,326	" velvet	6,747
Platina	14,672	" hose	117,716
Plaster	2,181	Silk, pieces	10,576,334
Clothing	13,981	" hose	36,533
Garden seeds	13,862	" sewing	47,555
Other	90,755	" hats	66,697
		Bolting cloth	22,185
Total free	400,702	Silk and worsted	746,861
Cloths	1,988,181	Linens	135,351
Shawls	135,562	Clothing	276,935
Blankets	66,872	Laces	19,185
Hose	19,211	Lastings	12,633
Worsteds	955,268	Straw hats	111,879
Flannels	4,409	Brass goods	54,433
Carpets	6,537	Tin foil	16,320
Cotton print	1,386,669	Lead	335,638
" white	161,738	Jewels	14,944

Clocks	59,404	Furs	381,572
Watches	1,757,502	Corks	73,679
" crystals	14,771	Brushes	115,017
Buttons	158,488	Wool	494,125
Glass	58,524	Wines	1,385,000
Plate	106,075	Brandy	2,051,020
Bottles	51,301	Loaf sugar	33,962
Paper, writing	80,385	Almonds	30,721
" hanging	117,929	Prunes	64,535
" other	88,584	Cheese	26,744
Boots	47,785	Soap	32,327
Leather	792,937	All others	5,111,769
Shoes	20,434		
Gloves	510,816	Total imports	$31,410,720
China	427,428		

EXPORTS OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE.

Oil	$1,695	Tobacco	728,831
Whalebone	268,440	Wax	17,690
Lumber	351,733	Ironware	5,800
Oak bark	90.659	Cottonware	3,346
Naval stores	50,986	Books	6,801
Ashes	167,283	Gold leaf	3.000
Skins	13,602	All others	328,060
Provisions	117,678		
Rice	156,736	Total	$20,435,852
Cotton	18,124,512		

The aggregates stand thus:

Imports merchandise		$31,410,720
Exports produce		20,435,852
Balance		10,974,868
Specie import	$304,833	
" export	7,473,634	
Balance specie	7,168,401	
Exports foreign goods	341,660	
		7,510,061
Balance paid in bills on England		$3,464,807

The goods imported from France, viz.: silks, wines and brandies, are those which pay the highest duties under our tariff; and the fact is to be here remarked, that the country which sends the goods taxed the highest under our laws, is that which has the largest balance against us; whilst that country whose merchandise is least taxed, gives a balance largely in our favor. This speaks volumes in relation to the efficacy of a tariff to change the "balance of trade." One reason why the importation of silks from France bear so high a figure, is the tax which the government imposes upon the raw material of that manufacture here. If these duties were removed, the importation of silks from France would suffer a great diminution, under the influence of home competition, just as lawns, de laines and shawls have already been affected.

We may compare the customs revenues of the three countries, for the last two years, reducing all to dollars, thus:

CUSTOMS REVENUES OF FRANCE, UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN.

	1851.	1852.	1851.	1852.
France, year to Jan. 1	f.124,696,461	f.117,121,405	$23,380,585	$21.960,762
Great Britain, year to Apr. 5	£18,730.561	£18,827,838	89,806,678	90.264,554
United States, year to Apr. 1	$50,201,074	$50,739,453	50,201,074	50,739,453

The customs revenue of France is this year increased, and is 12 per cent. more for the first quarter of 1852 than for the same quarter in 1851. Nevertheless, the anti-commercial policy of that country betrays itself as well in the small revenues, which, for 40,000,000 of French, is not half that for 23,000,000 of American, and is less than a fourth of that of 29,000,000 of British. There is no doubt, however, that the present government of France will, through diminished restrictions, give an impulse to the internal industry of the country, and endeavor at least to follow England in the more successful production of material wealth.—*U. S. Economist.*

2—COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

HARDWARE BUSINESS.

Years.	Capital employed.	Imports.	Sales.	Dealers.
1842	$ 96,000 00	$140,000 00	$185,000 00	6
1843	125,000 00	177,000 00	220,000 00	7
1844	142,000 00	210,000 00	265,000 00	7
1845	160,000 00	255,000 00	320,000 00	7
1846	190,000 00	305,000 00	355,000 00	8
1847	220,000 00	405,000 00	530,000 00	9
1848	270,000 00	520,000 00	695,000 00	9
1849	375,000 00	735,000 00	930,000 00	13
1850	450,000 00	860,000 00	1,020,000 00	14
1851	505,000 00	1,000,000 00	1,150,000 00	16

Manufactures.—We are not inclined to enter into particular details respecting the manufacturing establishments in operation, but present such facts and statistics as we think cannot but prove interesting, and perhaps have the effect of creating a desire for more full information in regard to our strength and prospects as a manufacturing city.

They comprise almost every branch of industry pursued in western cities, and in some instances to an equal, if not greater extent; the aggregate forming a very considerable portion of our business, and is the nucleus upon which St. Louis is to build her reputation as a manufacturing city.

The infancy of this arm of our prosperity has had much to contend with, the principal obstacle being the want of capital.

But few manufacturers, having ample means, have come among us, and the capital of our own citizens has, until a comparatively late period, been almost entirely absorbed by commercial pursuits and operations in real estate.

St. Louis has therefore paid, and still is annually paying, large amounts of money to other cities for manufactured goods, which, with proper encouragement, would have been, and can be, produced here.

Nevertheless, several branches of manufactures have arrived at a degree of importance not surpassed by corresponding enterprises in other cities of the Union. The great majority, however, are still, in the extent of their business, below mediocrity.

Whilst our steadily increasing commerce has been based upon money and real estate of immense value, our manufactures have come into existence under many unfavorable circumstances, and struggled on without adequate means; but the foresight and energy of those engaged in them have generally rendered them successful. In numerous instances they have overcome the competition from abroad, reaping fair rewards for their efforts, and making available to the public good many of our hitherto unemployed, if not unknown advantages.

Every succeeding year renders us not only more independent of our neighbors upon the Ohio and elsewhere, who have calculated largely upon our custom; but we are contending with them for a share of the benefits arising from supplying other markets.

The flouring is at present our most productive manufacturing interest. There are twenty mills. An examination of these mills, and observation of their judicious management, clearly accounts for the pre-eminence of St. Louis flour. They were erected and are conducted on the substantial principle of producing the *largest* quantity of the *best* article, at the *least* possible cost; and are owned by practical men. Several recently built, embrace all the improvements in the economy of milling.

The amount of flour produced in 1851, is estimated at 450,000 barrels. Had the crop furnished this market a sufficient stock of wheat to have kept them in full operation during the entire year, the amount would have reached one million of barrels; as it has resulted, however, the total value of their products in flour, feed, &c., is not less than $1,750,000.

The foundries and machine shops, of which there are nineteen, produce annually work valued at $1,570,000. Their proprietors wield an aggregate capital of above one million of dollars, which has been almost entirely created by their own industry, and they employ 1,200 men, to whom they pay wages yearly to the amount of $430,000.

This furnishes a brilliant example of what can be effected in this city by well directed labor.

Many of our manufactures, though conducted under great disadvantages, are steadily gaining ground, and destined by the accumulation of moderate gains to acquire a firm and permanent footing, which will arrest the present routine of consignments to our market from similar establishments abroad.

Prominent among these are the manufacturing of chairs and furniture, carriages, buggies, hats, clothing, chemicals, plows, stoves, soap, candles, &c, &c. We are happy to state, that during the past few years the attention of our capitalists has been, to some extent, directed to this subject; and it has been satisfactorily demonstrated that St. Louis is the most eligible point in the West for the prosecution of many manufacturing interests.

In this connection we may enumerate cotton yarn and batting, shot, lead pipe, sheet lead, bagging, rolling mills, boat-building, sugar refineries, white lead, castor and linseed oil, &c. &c.

Some of the establishments engaged in these branches of industry, rank with the first in the Union. We regret our inability to procure actual figures respecting them; as such statistics would prove the strength of our position.

Our numerous saw-mills, planing machines, sash and door factories, &c., are doing a steady and profitable business. Notwithstanding the large receipts of sawed lumber, sash, &c. daily arriving from the upper Mississippi, Missouri, Illinois, Ohio and Tennessee rivers, the ruling rates show that stocks never accumulate sufficiently to permanently depress prices below remunerating figures.

This is an additional proof of the onward march of our city, exhibiting an actual want of mills to keep pace with the numerous improvements and enterprises now in progress, and which will receive renewed impetus from the rail-roads destined soon to radiate from us in every direction.

Among the heaviest operations are those of our sugar refiners. A few years since this branch was considered of minor importance, and of doubtful success. Now, instead of importing refined sugars, St. Louis supplies not only herself, but the cities of the Ohio and the lakes.

Two establishments produce sugars and molasses annually to the amount of $1,400,000, and dispense for wages and fuel about $120,000.

We understand that arrangements are being made to supply our southern friends with sugar mills. We predict for the enterprising parties the full realization of their hopes.

The importance of this new branch to our manufactures will be more fully appreciated, when we state that one establishment alone in Cincinnati produces and ships annually this article to the amount of $500,000, and that whilst freights have been as high as one dollar per 100 lbs. from Cincinnati to New-Orleans, a contingency that can never occur here.

We cannot in this report particularize the great variety of our manufactures, whether in their incipiency or full tide of success.

Our object is to show that St. Louis is already, to a considerable extent, a manufacturing place, and has fairly entered the arena of active competition with her sister cities; the men engaged in them are intelligent and persevering, and will strive to press onward in the good cause.

Situated in the midst of an unequaled agricultural country, in the vicinity of mountains of iron, and inexhaustible mines of copper and lead, vast fields of coal, lumber of all descriptions, and every variety of earths and minerals required by the arts and manufactures, St. Louis contains all the necessary elements of success.

In concluding our remarks under this head we will add, that, next to the want of facilities by our manufacturers, there has been great apathy on the part of our citizens, and a consequent disinclination to invest their means in, or give encouragement to our own workshops. This should not be. Nothing should be brought from abroad that can be supplied here.

We believe a new era in this respect has dawned upon us; that our merchants and moneyed men begin to feel a just and honorable pride in promoting the labor of our own citizens; and to realize that their interests are identical.

This spirit will not only give additional credit to our manufacturers, and cheer them on, but will attract those of other cities and countries, who are disposed to change their location, thus bringing us population, labor and wealth.

Among the difficulties to overcome, the first and principal is that already alluded to, the want of capital. The course recommended cannot fail to produce the effect of turning a sufficiency into the proper channels.

Investments in manufactures already pay on the average better than those invested in commercial or land speculations.

The next most important, is cheap fuel. We must have more coal, and of a better quality. The capital and enterprise in this business have not been so directed as to produce the desired effect. The results of the operations of our coal companies have failed to meet public expectations, and coal remains altogether too dear, when we consider the immense fields by which we are surrounded, and which are so easy of access.

Rents are also exorbitant, particularly that of ground for manufacturing, often requiring much space, and as near as possible to the business parts of the city or the river. May we not look for a more liberal spirit among the holders of vacant property?

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—COST AND TRANSPORT ON RAIL-ROADS AND CANALS.

From the able report of Walter Gwinn, Chief Engineer on the James River and Kanawha Canal, we extract the following valuable statistics, and shall continue our extracts hereafter upon the same subject. It will be seen that Col. Gwinn is distinctly a canal man.

Table of the Comparative Cost of Construction of Twenty-eight Rail-roads in the United States.

NAMES OF THE RAIL-ROADS.	Length of main track in miles.	Length of branches in miles.	Length of single track.	Length of double track.	Length of main track & branches.	Cost per mile in dollars.	Aggregate cost of the whole line.
Western	117,804		64,50	53,75	117,804	78,103	$8,032,813
Boston and Worcester	44,625			44,62			
" " branches,		24	24		68,625	71,149	4,882,648
Fitchburg	50,930			50,93			
" branches		15,50	15,50		66,430	53,473	3,552,262
Boston and Maine	74,260		46,47	27,79			
" " branches,		8,79	8,79		83,050	48,423	4,021,606
Boston and Providence	41,000		25,25	16,75			
" " branches,		12	12		53	64,457	3,416,222
Boston and Lowell	25,750			25,75			
" " branches,		1,75	1,75		27,500	70,750	1,945,646
Eastern	38,106		22,10	16			
" branches		19,91	19.91		58,016	53,776	3,120,201
Old Colony	37,250		25,75	11,50			
" branches		7,75	7,75		45	50,967	2,293,594
Norwich and Worcester	59		57,20	1,80			
" " branches,		7	7		66	39,371	2,598,514
Providence and Worcester	43,410		38,24	5,17	43,410	42,036	1,824,796
Cheshire	53,646		53,64		53,646	51,062	2,739,318
Total	585,781	96,70	429.85	253,06	682,481	623,567	38,427,780
Albany and Schenectady	16,900		7,90	9,00	16,900	101,266	1,711,412
Hudson River	143,720				143,720	76,537	14,000,000
New-York and Erie	464				464	64,655	30,000,000
New-York and New-Haven	61		49,50	11,50	61	56,022	3,417,737
Syracuse and Utica	53			53	53	46,982	2,490,023
Utica and Schenectady	78			78	78	53,127	4,143,918
Rochester and Syracuse	104			104			
" " branches,		9,50		9,50	113,500	37,000	4,200,000
Albany and West Stockbridge,	38,250		35,75	2,50	38,250	50,480	1,930,895
New-York and Harlem	80				90	58,327	4,666,208
Total	1038,870	9,50	93,15	267,50	1048,370	544,401	66 560,253
Baltimore and Ohio	186				186	54,283	10,096,638
Baltimore and Wash. branch,	30,500				30,500	54,000	1,647,000
Phil., Wilmington and Balt.,	97				97	66,000	6,402,000
Baltimore and Susquehanna,	69,500				69,500	47,450	3,297,775
Columbia	82				82	51,280	4.204.960
Pennsylvania Portage	36,666				36,666	50.920	1.867,032
Reading	94				94	128,803	12,107.482
Richmond and Petersburg	22				22	39,886	877.492
Total	617,666	—	—	—	617,666	492,622	40,500,379

RECAPITULATION.

	Length in miles	Cost	Average cost per mile.
Aggregate of the Massachusetts rail-roads, main track	585.78		
" " " branches	96.70		
	682.48	38,427,780	56,303
Aggregate of the New-York rail-roads and branches	1048 37	66,560,253	63,489
" miscellaneous rail-roads	617.66	40,500,379	65,570
General aggregate	2348.51	$145,488,412	61,949

The aggregate length of the main stems of these roads is 2,242,317 miles; of their branches is 106.20, making a total of 2,348, 517 miles. The aggregate cost, divided by this last distance, which includes both main tracks and branches, makes the average cost per mile $61,949. But as the branches cost much less than the main lines, the average cost of the main lines will exceed $63,000 per mile.

The first estimate of the cost of the Erie Rail-road was $4,762,260: it is now ascertained that its cost, with double track and equipments, will exceed $30,000,000.

"The Boston and Providence and Worcester roads were estimated to cost about $1,000,000 each. The aggregate cost has reached to more than $8,000,000." The estimate for the Baltimore and Ohio Rail road, from Baltimore to Cumberland, was $4,528,-693; the cost $9,662,374. The estimated cost of the Hudson River Rail-road was $6,000,-000; the cost will be $14,000,000. The ratio between the estimates and the cost of most of the other rail-roads named in the above table, is nearly as great. In no one instance, according to my recollection, have any of them been constructed at a cost less than double the estimate. Some of these roads are of recent construction, estimated by practical engineers.

As my desire is to run out a fair parallel between canals and rail-roads, I will here subjoin a table of the cost of some of the leading canals in the country.

Table of the Cost per mile of the principal lines of Canals in the United States.

	Length in miles.	Cost per mile of each canal.	Aggregate cost in dollars.	Average cost per mile
New-York and Erie	363	$19,679	$7,143,477	
Oswego	38	14,879	565,402	
Cayuga and Seneca	21	11,285	236,985	
Chemung	23	29,678	682,594	
Crooked Lake	8	19,597	156,775	
Chenango	97	24,948	2,419,956	
Genessee Valley	120	31,158	3,738,960	
Schuylkill	108	20,688	2,234,304	
Ohio and branches	337	13,932	4,695,084	
Muskingum	91	17,882	1,627,262	
Walholding	25	24,290	607,250	
Hocking	56	17,419	975,464	
Miami and Warren	85	14,559	1,237,515	
Miami extension	139	22,798	3,168,922	
Wabash and Erie	90	33,968	3,057,120	
Lehigh	87	51,207	4,455,009	
Susquehanna, Northwest branches	184	21,837	4,018,008	
Pennsylvania main line	277½	26,681	7,403,977	
Delaware division	59¾	20,633	1,232,821	
James River and Kanawha	147	34,150	5,020,050	
Twenty canals	2,356	$471,268	$54,676,936	$23,207

2.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, REVENUES, ETC., OF NORTH CAROLINA.

From the valuable work of Mr. Williams, upon North Carolina, lately issued from the press of Lippencott & Co., we extract the following:

In 1825, a Board of Internal Improvements was established, and the funds arising from the sales of Cherokee lands and dividends from stock owned by the state in the Bank of Cape Fear, set apart as the fund. (See Revised Statutes, p. 347.)

Present Internal Improvement Board—CALVIN GRAVES, of Caswell; THOMAS BRAGG, of Northampton.

1. The Dismal Swamp Canal, uniting the waters of Pasquotank and Elizabeth rivers in Virginia, was incorporated in 1790.

2. Cape Fear Navigation Company, incorporated in 1796, to improve the navigation of the Cape Fear River, from Averysborough to the confluence of the Deep and Haw rivers, the sum of $100,000, to be subscribed in shares of one hundred dollars each; the state subscribed six hundred and fifty shares of stock.

3. Roanoke Navigation Company, incorporated in 1812, improving the navigation from Halifax to the Virginia line. The state owns $50,000 in the stock of this company.

4. The Clubfoot and Harlow Creek Canal was incorporated in 1826; in which the state holds thirty shares.

5. The Cape Fear and Deep River Navigation Company was incorporated in 1849, in which the state subscribed $40,000.

6. Neuse River Navigation Company, incorporated in 1850. State subscribes $40,000.

1. The Raleigh and Gaston Rail-road, from Raleigh to Gaston, on Roanoke River, was incorporated in 1835. This road was finished July 4th, 1839, at a cost of about $1,600,000. The state indorsed the bonds of this road in 1838, to the amount of $500,000; and in 1840, $300,000; for which she is liable, and has already in part paid; the road being

mortgaged to save the state harmless, has been sold under the mortgage, and has been purchased by the state.

George W. Mordecai, President.

2. The Raleigh and Wilmington Rail-road, from the Roanoke River to Wilmington, was incorporated in 1833. The company was organized in March, 1836. This work was commenced in October, 1836, and finished in March, 1840, at a cost of $1,500,000. Six hundred thousand were subscribed in the stock by the state; and by act of 1840, the state indorsed the bonds of this company for $300,000, a part of which she has paid. The repairs of the road in 1850, increased the cost to another million. Gen. McRae, President.

3. The North Carolina Rail-road, from the Wilmington and Raleigh Rail-road, in Wayne county, to Charlotte, was incorporated in 1848, in which, on $1,000,000 being subscribed by individual subscribers, $2,000,000 is to be subscribed by the state. This road is now in progress. Hon. J. M. Morehead, President.

1. Buncombe Turnpike, from the Saluda Gap by way of Asheville to the Tennessee line, was incorporated in 1824; capital stock to be $30,000, in shares of fifty dollars each; the state owns one hundred shares. The company was organized in 1826; the first toll-gate was erected in October, 1827.

2. The Fayetteville and Western Plank-road, from Fayetteville to Salisbury, was incorporated in 1848. Stock, $200,000, in shares of fifty dollars each. State subscribes one-fifth.

3. The Turnpike Road, from Salisbury west to the Georgia line, was incorporated in 1848, and the lands in the state, in Cherokee, Macon, and Haywood, as well as the Cherokee bonds, are pledged to make the same.

The Public Treasury of North Carolina is divided into—

I. Public Fund.
II. Literary Fund.

The public fund is supplied—

I. From taxes collected by the sheriffs annually from the people, and paid into the treasury, which is levied on land and town property, poll, (white and black,) money at interest, dividends and profits, stores, carriages, watches, and other property, bank tax, attorneys, licenses, dividends of Buncombe Turnpike Company, and some other sources, which amounted last year to $179,768.

The literary fund is supplied—

II. By the sales of vacant and swampy lands in the state, taxes on taverns, dividends on stock held by the state in the Bank of the State and Bank of Cape Fear, dividends on the stock held by the state in the Roanoke Navigation Company, and in the Cape Fear Navigation Company, tax on auctioneers, interest on bonds held by the board, which amounted last year to $112,316.

THE ANNUAL EXPENSES OF THE STATE.	
From the public fund for judiciary about	$30,000 00
Legislature	45,000 00
Executive	10,000 00
Principal and interest on bonds of Raleigh and Gaston Rail-road indorsed by the state.	70,000 00
And other demands, which amounted last year (1850) to	228,173 00
The expenses paid from literary fund are, for common schools	107,339 00

LIABILITIES OF THE STATE.	
For Raleigh and Gaston Rail-road	$500,000 00
For do. do do	106,000 00
State bonds	200,000 00
State bonds for Fayetteville and Western Turnpike Company	120,000 00
State bonds for Neuse and Tar rivers	65,000 00
State bonds for Cape Fear and Deep rivers	80,000 00
State bonds for North Carolina Rail-road	2,000,000 00
	$3,071,000 00

3.—THE CANAL AROUND THE FALLS OF THE OHIO.

This work, successfully designed and constructed to facilitate the trade and travel that ascends and descends the Ohio River, is now (nearly nine-tenths of it) the property of the people of the United States. Its original construction, although promising great facilities and advantages to the public, was regarded as a doubtful speculation. As the prominent facts connected with its history are of interest to the people generally, who own nearly the whole improvement, and of special interest to those who trade and travel upon *La Belle Riviere*, we briefly state them.

In 1825, the Legislature of Kentucky granted a charter for the construction of a canal around the Falls of the Ohio River, on the Kentucky side, with a capital stock of $600,000, to be called the "Louisville and Portland Canal." The company and the individual shareholders became involved in pecuniary embarrassments in constructing the work, and in December, 1831, they applied for and obtained from the legislature authority to increase the stock to an amount sufficient, at $100 per share, to pay all the costs and expenses of construction, and the interest thereon, up to the time it was opened for use. When this authority was given, no returns, in the shape of dividends or interest, had been realized upon the investment.

To aid and encourage the commencement and prosecution of this important work, Congress authorized the United States government to subscribe 1,000 shares to the original stock, in 1825; 1,335 additional shares in 1829—in all, 2,335 shares, and paying therefor $233,500.

Under an act of December, 1831, the company made an "allowance" to the stockholders of twenty per cent. interest on all stock standing three and one-third years, and ten per cent. upon that of one and two-thirds of a year standing—the total allowance being $106,650, of which the United States received, in stock, $33,350. The company also allowed $60,000 as a dividend from the net receipts of the canal during its operation, and of this the United States received $23,350 in stock—making in all $56,700, for which 567 additional shares of stock were received. After this allowance, and until 1842, individuals held 7,098 shares of the stock of the company, and the United States 2,902; representing $1,000,000, total cost of the canal.

From January, 1834, to January, 1842, regular annual dividends were made, in money, to the stockholders, from the net profits of the company; and the United States received, during these eight years, an aggregate sum of $257,078 in dividends—the total amount divided among all the stockholders, during that period, was $822,537. At this point of time, January, 1842, the United States had paid into the company $233,500, and received $257,078 in cash dividends, $56,700 in stock dividend, and held $2,902 shares of stock.

The business upon the Ohio River was large, and rapidly increasing, the canal, which was at first regarded as a hazardous speculation, had become exceedingly remunerative to shareholders—and the public began to demand increased facilities for the river trade and travel around the Falls, by constructing another canal upon the other side of the river, or the enlargement of the present one, and free from tolls. The stock of this company, in case its chartered rights and privileges remained unimpared, was regarded as a good investment at $250 per share; but the shareholders became alarmed at the popular demands and demonstrations, and in 1842 they applied for and obtained from the Kentucky Legislature the privilege of selling the stock held by individuals to the United States, to the State of Kentucky, or to the City of Louisville, with the view, eventually, of making the canal free of tolls; and they also obtained the privilege of appropriating the net income of the canal to the purchase of stock, instead of making dividends—fixing the price of the stock, the first year, not exceeding $150 a share; and the highest price to be paid each subsequent year, was the maximum price of the first year, with 6 per cent. per annum added. And when the stock of individuals should all be bought up, then it was to be transferred to the United States, on condition that the United States would only levy sufficient tolls to keep the canal in repair, &c.

This plan of liquidating individual stock began in 1842, and the total net receipts of the canal from that time to January, 1852, were $1,276,713 32, and the total income, as it was annually realized, has been appropriated in buying up the stock of individuals—paying in 1842, one hundred and fifty dollars a share, and increasing in price each subsequent year, according to the schedule in the Act of 1842, until the price last year, reached $231 per share—and over 600 shares were taken at that price. On the first of January, 1852, the United States owned 8,660 shares of the stock, and individuals only 1,340.

Such, in short, is the legislative and financial history of the Louisville and Portland Canal, around the Falls of the Ohio.

The people of the Ohio Valley, and the inland commerce of that rich and productive region, now demand another canal on the Indiana side, or the enlargement of the present one, and its freedom from tolls.

4.—STEAMBOAT ACCIDENTS.

We spoke lately of the morals of horse-racing and boat-racing, and preferred the former.

Perhaps we were wrong; but the late melancholy cases of the St. James, of Louisiana, and the Henry Clay, of New-York, will show.

The subject is now in the hands of Congress, and a bill has passed one house, of the most stringent character, which it is believed will secure the lives of passengers from the perils of human cupidity, human recklessness, and what is easier than either—iron and steam. We shall publish the bill hereafter.

The following, made up from the files of the New-York Herald, gives some of these steamboat doings, since the first of January last. Nearly 500 lives gone in six months:

STEAMBOAT ACCIDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1852.

Jan'ry 9.—Boiler of steamer Magnolia, exploded at St. Simon's Island, Georgia. 13 persons killed; 11 injured.

14.—Boiler of steamer George Washington exploded, near Grand Gulf, Miss. 16 lives lost; 10 persons injured.

14.—Steamer Martha Washington burnt, near Memphis, Tenn. 5 lives lost.
23.—Steamer Pitzer Miller's boiler exploded, at the mouth of the White river. Several persons killed.
25.—Steamer De Witt Clinton struck a snag near Memphis, Tenn. 40 lives lost.
31.—Steamer General Warren wrecked, at Astoria, Oregon. 42 lives lost.
Feb. 14.—Steamer Caddo sunk, near New-Orleans. 5 lives lost.
29.—Steam tow-boat Mary Kingsland's boiler burst, below New-Orleans. 5 lives lost; 3 persons injured.
Mar. 26.—Steamer Pocahontas collapsed her flues, near Memphis, Tenn. 8 lives lost; 18 persons severely scalded.
26.—Steamer Independence wrecked, in Matagorda bay, Texas. 7 lives lost.
April 3.—Steamer Redstone's boilers exploded, near Carrollton, In. 21 lives lost; 25 persons injured.
3.—Steamer Glencoe blew up, at St. Louis. Number of lives lost unknown.
9.—Steamer Saluda's boiler exploded, at Lexington, Mo. 100 lives lost.
11.—Steamer Pocahontas burnt, near Choctaw Bend. 12 lives lost.
25.—Steamer Prairie State collapsed her flues, on the Illinois, killing and wounding 20 persons.
May 19.—Steamer Pittsburg's cylinder heads broken, killing 1 and injuring 3 persons.
June 14.—Steamer Forest City collapsed a flue, at Cleveland. 3 lives lost.
July 5.—Steamer St. James' boiler exploded near New-Orleans. About 40 lives lost.
12.—Propeller City of Oswego run into by another steamer, near Cleveland, and sunk. 20 lives lost.
28.—Steamer Henry Clay burnt, near Yonkers, on the Hudson. About 80 lives lost, and about 20 more or less injured.

THE MELANCHOLY RESULT IN FIGURES.

	No. of Steamers.	Lives lost.	Persons Injured.
January	6	116	21
February	2	10	3
March	2	15	13
April	5	143	35
May	1	1	3
June	1	3	—
July	3	140	20
Total	20	428	100

MISCELLANEOUS.

1—INTERNAL RESOURCES OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

The area of South Carolina in round numbers is nineteen millions of acres, and the population under six hundred thousand, giving over thirty acres of land to every individual, old and young, black and white, and I think we may safely say there is one hundred acres of land for every person engaged in its tillage. If then, we estimate that by any means one half of the land, or nine and a half millions of acres, are capable of culture, there is room enough in our borders yet to plant ten times as much more as we now plant.

Admitting, then, that we have nine and a half millions of acres of tillable land, of which allow one half for grain and pasturage, and plant only the balance, four and three quarter millions of acres, or one-fourth of all our surface, and were to make no more than half a bale of cotton to the acre, it would give us a crop of nearly twenty-four hundred thousand bales, equal to the present whole crop of the United States. This is startling, and some of my readers may throw back their heads and raise up their hands in amazement. At first, it does look incredible, that so small a territory and but one-fourth of it employed, making only half a crop, should turn out so much; but here are the figures, and competent calculators say we have the land. I feel that this is a sort of new idea, and some one may say if South Carolina can do so much, the other cotton states can do it too, or that South Carolina is looking ahead to make all the cotton wanted. But observe, I am not telling what we are trying to do, or what we are going to do, but what we could do if we would, and what duty to ourselves requires that we should boldly attempt for our sake and the sake of those who are to come after us, if we wish to improve our condition by using our resources, or even maintain our present standing before the world.

Let our rivers be straightened—throw all the water into one straight channel, that it may run off quick and wash out deep—thus securing their deltas free from freshets, and you open up an immense mine of agricultural wealth, which must add to your capital, increase your productions and comforts, employ your labor and skill to greater advantage, invite an increase and retain your present numbers—which, if something is not done, must look out for other fields to operate in. To effect this purpose is worth an effort—for if we lose them, we lose the essentials of strength, capital, and population—when the opposite course will encourage them to remain with their energies, means, and productions.

Small streams are ditched, drained and re-drained, as we will see on almost every plantation—then why not the rivers that are worth so much more?

From Camden falls to Santee is about 40 miles—the swamp will average at least two miles—many places it is four miles across—but say two miles all the way, and you have eighty square miles or upwards, fifty-one thousand acres of land, of which there is not now under culture above 15,000 acres, thus adding 36,000 acres of new land ; or say an increase of value on the whole of $20 per acre, gives us 1,000,000. And this in a short distance of Wateree alone, in the centre of the state, while there is Santee, Wateree, the Pee Dees, Lynche's Creek, and several other streams, adding in all ten or twenty times more.

As we know more about Wateree River, and we believe that no other would yield so much at so little expense, we can say more about it, and would respectfully ask particular attention to it, from Camden to Santee. In a straight line, it is about forty miles—as it runs, 125 miles or more. The fall 18 inches or more to the mile, as it could not run with less. Reduce the length to forty miles, and concentrate the fall, gives us five feet, and if the flow increases in proportion, it would run off in one day as much as it runs now in one week, and the single channel give sufficient vent for all the water.

The old river beds could soon be planted—the creeks, lakes and ponds could be drained by ditches into the deepened channel, and all or nearly all rendered secure from overflow of water, which has been so frequent the last few years as to discourage the few that plant them. The crops and stock lost in the last ten years would be a sufficient sum to pay for the work I propose.

These lands are greatly needed, for what was naturally fertile of the high lands, has become much worn, while these lands once made free from freshets, are almost invaluable, the quality of the soil being the very richest, and lying so as never to wear out, producing cotton, corn, or small grain equal to any lands on earth. These great advantages would not be for a few years only, or require a periodical expense to keep them up as most improvements do, but they will tell, and tell well for all time to come.

An expenditure of $100,000 by the state will add one million to its wealth. Lands now valued at five dollars will be worth fifty dollars per acre ; it is too large an undertaking for individuals, though they have done much in banking out, which does not answer the purpose. To embank all the way would cost three times the money that straightening it would, and then the embankments are always liable to break or be undermined, while the water outside of them must lie on the ground, which is often an injury to crops, to the ground, and a hindrance from work. The enterprise is so inviting to the state, so much can be done with so little money, let it be surveyed by a competent man,—count the cost, make all the calculations, and go to work as soon as possible. Here we have rich mines which are certain never to fail. They cannot be worked too soon ; objection might be made to this magnificent improvement as redounding too much to the benefit of a few, which I answer by asking what work of its kind has not the same tendency? Where a rail-road passes, land rises in price. Town property and rents increase in value, where the facilities of trade and travel are enlarged ; and what is good for a part of the people is good for the whole. The state belongs to the people, and without the people it could not go on. We insist with great confidence, that this enterprise is practicable, and that it could not fail to result in eminent good to all.

It looks like this acquisition had been reserved for a later day—a day when necessity would compel a movement towards it. To the writer, who must confess himself sanguine on the subject, it presents itself as a cheap means of nearly doubling the wealth of the state.—*Richland.*

2.—WISCONSIN.—HER INTERNAL FACILITIES AND RESOURCES.

The most western link of the great chain of lakes is connected with a prong of the Mississippi, called the Wisconsin River, by a hook—named the "Fox and Wisconsin River Improvement." The Fox River is navigable, and empties its waters into Lake Michigan, through Green Bay—a kind of fungus attachment resembling a jug-handle. This great water communication between the lakes and Mississippi River extends in a south-western direction from Green Bay, through the interior of the settled regions of the state ; and is the only great thoroughfare between the lakes and Mississippi, north of Illinois. The confluence of the Wisconsin River with the Mississippi is a little below Prairie du Chien, one of the most beautifully romantic, as well as most ancient river towns in the west. This river is navigable for two hundred miles, and, with its tributaries flows through the most extensive lumber regions in the Union, furnishing the lower Mississippi country with annual supplies of rafts of pine lumber, shingles, &c. Steamers are now plying as regularly between the upper and lower trade on the Wisconsin River as the St. Louis and Galena packets on the Mississippi.

Milwaukee, occupying an eligible position for commerce, is located on the Wisconsin side of Lake Michigan, near the centre of the western shore, and is destined to be the custom-house recipient for the heavy products of the north-west, in spite of all rivals. This assertion may be coolly received in some quarters; but when the projected Milwaukee and Mississippi Railroad is completed, (forty miles of which is now finished, and sixty miles more under contract,) common sense and a glance at the geographical position of the route, must convince any one that our conclusion is anything but chimerical. This great arterial trunk, extending from Milwaukee through an already densely populated region, will send forth branches in every feasible direction, to gather in and empty into Milwaukee the surplusage of nearly all the country lying north of latitude 42½°, including Wisconsin, Minnesota, Northern Iowa, and the new Indian purchase—than which no other regions of the great west can boast of receiving more than half the like emigration during the past year or two, nor will likely for years to come.

Madison, the capital of the state, situated in the interior, and in the focus of a rich and healthy agricultural region, will be the secondary central terminus for plank and rail-road ingathering—the cargoes, freight and storage of which will flow into Milwaukee, by way of the great trunk, for shipment to New-York city.—*Grant Co. Wis. Her.*

3.—EMIGRATION RETURNS.

The following returns, just issued by her Majesty's Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, show the annual emigration for 27 years, from 1825 to 1851, inclusive. It will be seen that during the last year, whilst emigration from the United Kingdom to the United States has increased by 44,277, and to Australia by 5,495, as compared with the preceding year; there has been a falling off of emigrants to other places of above one-half, and to the North American possessions the increase has been 30 per cent., the aggregate increase being 55,117, or nearly 20 per cent.

Year.	North American Colonies.	U. States.	Australian Colonies and N. Zealand.	All other places.	Total.
1825	8,741	5,551	485	114	14,891
1826	12,818	7,063	903	116	20,900
1827	12,648	14,526	715	114	28,003
1828	12,084	12,817	1,056	135	26,092
1829	13,307	15,678	2,016	197	31.198
1830	30,574	24,887	1,242	204	56,907
1831	58,067	23,418	1,561	114	83,160
1832	66,339	32,872	3,733	196	103,140
1833	28,808	29,109	4,093	517	62,527
1834	40,060	33,074	2,800	288	76,222
1835	15,573	26,720	1,860	325	44,478
1836	34,226	37,774	3,124	293	75.417
1837	29,884	36,770	5,054	326	72,034
1838	4,578	14,332	14,021	292	33,222
1839	12,658	33,536	15,786	227	62,207
1840	32,293	40,642	15.850	1,958	90,743
1841	38,164	45,117	32,625	2,786	118,592
1842	54,123	63,852	8,534	1,835	128,344
1843	23,518	28,335	3,478	1,881	57,212
1844	22,924	43,660	2,229	1,873	70,686
1845	31,803	58,538	830	2,330	93,501
1846	43,439	82,239	2,347	1,826	129,851
1847	109,680	142,154	4,949	1,487	258,270
1848	31,065	108,283	23,904	4,887	248,089
1849	41,367	219,450	32,091	6.590	299,498
1850	32,961	223.078	16,037	8,773	280,849
1851	42,605	267,357	21,532	4,472	335,966
Total	884,306	1,750,682	222,855	44,156	2,901,999

4.—FLORIDA—KEY WEST—THE WRECKERS—FISHERIES, ETC., ETC

Florida, as regards population, is the smallest of the thirty-one states; her white population being only 47,120, and her slave 39,341. A Spanish settlement was made within the limits of the state nearly fifty years previous to the settlement at Jamestown, Virginia. Fort Marion, in the city of St. Augustine, is certainly one of the oldest in the United Sates, having been finished in 1756, in the reign of Ferdinand the VIth; and St. Augustine is the most venerable city in the Union, having been settled forty-three years before Jamestown, Va., by the British.

Key-West is an island at the southern point of the Peninsula of Florida, and belongs to the Archipelago which beautify the Florida coast and the entrance into the Gulf of Mexico. It is the southernmost settlement in the United States, and, by its position, is the *Key* of the United States to the Florida Pass and the Gulf of Mexico. This island has so long been connected with scenes of maritime disaster and *wrecking*, that its reputation abroad has been associated, very generally and unjustly, with barbarous violence and *quasi* piracy.

It is, however, one of the most attractive "beauty-spots" resting upon the surface of the ocean—with a climate more salubrious, healthful, and remedial, than any other *spot* upon this continent, and with a population characterized by as much intelligence, accomplishments, honesty, industry and morality, as that of any other portion of the Union.

Key-West is the most populous town in the state of Florida, containing about 3,000 inhabitants. It has 650 houses, 26 stores, 10 warehouses, 4 churches, (Episcopal, Catholic, Methodist and Baptist,) court-house, jail, custom-house, marine-hospital, commodious military barracks, a fort in the process of construction, on which $360,000 has been expended, and requiring over a million more to complete it. It has 27 wrecking and coasting and fishing vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 2,250 tons. The harbor is large, safe and easy of access, by different channels, for ships of 22 feet draft.

The island is four miles long by half a mile to a mile in width, making the area about 2,000 acres, including a salt-pond of some 350 acres. It is composed of a formation of coral lime-stone and sea-shells, with a sandy and rocky surface, and very little available soil. The highest elevation on the island is not over twelve feet above the level of the sea. The unoccupied parts are covered with low stunted wood and bushes, the larger trees having been prostrated by the destructive gale of 1846. The prickly pear, geranium, &c. grow luxuriantly, and the wild flowers never cease to unfold their petals—it is an evergreen spot. The cocoa-nut tree, the banana, plantain, the lime, the orange, lemon, fig, tamarind, date and other tropical trees grow well where there is earth enough to sustain them, and are always found in the yards and gardens, adding greatly to the singular beauty and attractiveness of the principal residences.

The production of culinary vegetables is unceasing—such as sweet potatoes, cabbage, beets, lettuce, cucumbers, turnips, &c. They grow best in winter, it being the wet season. The want of "mother earth," however, renders gardening expensive and the production of vegetables is limited.

The palm tree is the pride of tropical climates, and contributes more than all others, perhaps, to give a pecular and imposing character to those regions. The family of *palms* comprises some 700 varieties, and among them the cocoa-nut tree is a majestic as well as most useful *vegetable*. In the Society Islands it grows 70 and 80 feet high—at Key West their height is from 20 to 50 feet. The stem tapers to the top without a branch or offset, but at the summit it shoots forth 20 to 30 leaves from 15 to 20 feet long. and these hang in a graceful tuft around the top. When the branches spread out, clusters of fruit, like "bunches of bladders," cluster thickly around the body, where the branches join the trunk of the tree. Some trees bear 100, others 50 and 30 nuts, containing from one-half pint to a quart of liquor. The straight, unbranching trunk, the long and graceful leaves or branches, and the clustering fruit, give to this remarkable tree a most noticeable and singularly beautiful appearance, and it furnishes timber, fuel, mats, baskets, ropes, drinking-vessels, food, beverage, strainers, bonnets, oil and bowls.

The original name of this island was *Cayo Huesson*, or *Bone Key*, from the quantity of human bones found upon it when discovered by the Spaniards. Key West is the English corruption of *Cayo Huesson*; it is, however, not the western termination of the *Reef*, there being several other islands, with Tortugas, the largest, some 60 miles distant.

Forty years ago this island was granted by the Spanish crown to John P. Salas, and in 1823 was purchased by Col. Simonton, who still resides here. In 1832 it was made a military station, and in 1845 the barracks were completed, consisting of eight commodidious and airy buildings, placed on three sides of a quadrangle, opening towards the sea, each building having a piazza entirely around it. The first white female settler was Mrs. Mallory, in 1823, the mother of the present U. S. Senator from Florida. She is an intelligent, energetic woman of Irish descent, and still keeps an excellent boarding-house, for the accommodation of visitors—there being no tavern upon the island.

The population consists of emigrants from most of the states and civilized nations. There are about 300 slaves, well cared for, civil and joyous, and nearly one-half of all residents are natives of the Bahama Islands. They are called Couch-men or *Conchs*, by reason of their skill in *diving*. They are generally uneducated and ignorant of the world, but a hardy, industrious and honest race, getting their living by wrecking, fishing, sponging, turtling, diving, &c. They are employed in diving into the holds of sunken vessels, to make fast to goods; to dive under and examine the bottoms of vessels that have been injured upon the reefs; 40 or 50 feet water being regarded as good working depth. They are indeed an amphibious race, having been known to dive in 90 feet water and make fast to anchors, &c.

The principal business of Key West is derived from the salvages, commissions and perquisites of wrecking. It is not, however, as many suppose, a sort of piratical employment, but is as legitimate as any other occupation, and conducted according to well-established and legally recognized rules, for the mutual benefit of the wreckers, the wrecked and the underwriters. Those engaged in it are mostly men of wealth, character, of generous sentiments and humane impulses. The rule among wreckers is, that he who first boards the wreck has control of her until delivered into the hands of the court. He determines who, if any, shall aid him, and in what order and rate they shall share the benefits. He also decides, unless the captain selects, to whom the wrecked vessel shall be consigned. Then the whole matter is left for legal adjudication; the amount of salvage is determined by the court, and each party shares therein as promised by the wrecker who first boarded the wreck.

The award averages about one-tenth of the value of the property saved, and the commissions, expenses, &c., swell this to about one-sixth. There is annually brought into Key West about $1,250,000 of wrecked property, which leaves behind some $200,000 to be divided among captains, crews, wreckers, wharf-owners, lawyers, auctioneers, shipwrights, &c., &c. It is the principal reliance of the business men of the island.

The reefs abound in *sponges*, and many persons are engaged in collecting them; it is quite a lucrative business, paying about $40 to $50 per month to each hand. About $50,000 is annually shipped. The sponges are cleansed, dried, packed, and pressed, and shipped to New-York; and thence mostly sold to the French to make felt for hats.

Some 30,000 bushels of excellent salt are annually made on the island. There is a salt-pond, covering about 350 acres, the influx from the sea being regulated by a canal. There are wooden pans, as at Syracuse, and "ground pans" inclosed in stone walls and cement of various dimensions, from 40 feet square to a quarter of an acre, the water being introduced into the wooden and ground pans by pumps worked by wind-mills. The salt sells at the works, at 20 cents per bushel, and the works, which can be extended at pleasure, are now being enlarged.

The finest fish, and of many varieties, are taken in large quantities. "Turtling" is also a "regular business," and large exportations of the "article" are made. Turtles are taken in nets, but the *sport* is had in *turning* and *pegging* turtles. They come upon the sandy beach to deposit their eggs in the night, and at such times they are stealthily approached and turned upon their backs before they can escape to the water. "Pegging turtles" is a singular sport. A small instrument is used, not unlike and very little longer and larger than a shoemaker's pegging-awl. This is rigged harpoon-like and thrown at the turtle, and, by piercing his shell, it sticks fast, so that a turtle weighing 400 pounds is simply hauled in and secured by the use of this small pegging instrument.

At Key West the seasons glide imperceptibly into each other, exhibiting less difference in temperature than any other place in the United States. The climate is pre-eminently remedial in pulmonary consumption, chronic bronchial affections, &c., and on some other occasion I will furnish you with some useful and interesting facts in this connection, and also other items touching this "beauty-spot" upon the Florida coast. L. C. T.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

MEMUCAN HUNT, OF TEXAS.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 23.

At the last session of the Legislature of Texas, a charter was granted to Memucan Hunt and others for the construction of a great *Central Rail-road* through that state. connecting the waters of Galveston Bay with those of the upper Red River. The active part performed by General Hunt in the projection of the road and the procurement of the charter—the zeal and energy with which he has since pressed upon the capitalists of the country the enormous interests to be subserved and wealth to be realized by the speedy construction of the road—the probability of his eventual success, for which he has all the energies and capacity necessary, to say nothing of his past services to Texas in every period of her history, warrant us, we think, in including him in our catalogue of useful and approved citizens.

Mr. Hunt is a native of North Carolina, and was born on the 7th of August, 1807. He is a descendant, on the paternal line, of Ralph Hunt, of Virginia, (whose ancestors were *permitted* by Cromwell to emigrate from the county of Kent, England, in consequence of their opposition to the usurpations of the times.) and Charity Anderson of Hanover county, Virginia. His grandfather, Hon.

Memucan Hunt, whose wife was Mary Wade, of Lunenberg county, Virginia, was member of the Colonial and State Legislatures of North Carolina, member of the Convention which framed the first Constitution, and Treasurer of the state. His father, William Hunt, was a Major in the Revolution, and during the administration of Washington, adjusted with others the accounts of North Carolina with the federal government. On the maternal side, Mr. Hunt is descended from Elizabeth Taylor, daughter of Col. Joseph Taylor an officer of the Revolution, of North Carolina, and Frances Anderson, and grand-daughter of John Taylor and Catharine Pendleton, the sister of Chancellor Edmund Pendleton, and also in the fifth degree from James Taylor of Wales, who is the common ancestor of the very large and influential family of the Taylors of Virginia, Carolina, Tennessee and Kentucky.*

Mr. Hunt's father was an independent planter of Carolina, who left three sons, Memucan, the youngest, Thomas, a planter in Tennessee, and William, whose fortunes are now united with those of the old north state.

At the age of eighteen, Mr. Hunt was established as a planter in North Carolina, and though desiring to emigrate westward, yielded to the solicitations of his venerable father to remain by his side as a prop to his declining years. In his twenty-second year he entered into a commercial partnership at Norfolk and Weldon, and displayed equal zeal and intelligence as a planter and a merchant. He was appointed in 1831 aid-de-camp to General Hawkins; in 1832 was one of a committee of three appointed at Shoco, North Carolina, to interrogate Messrs. Barbour and Van Buren, candidates for the Vice-Presidency, in regard to their views; in 1834, served in several internal improvement conventions at Raleigh and Hillsboro', then the earliest of such assemblies in the union. Removing soon after to Mississippi, he became an active and successful planter in Madison county.

The American mind being now everywhere aroused and excited by the gallant and heroic struggles of Texas in the cause of freedom and republicanism, Major Hunt determined to repair to the standard of the patriots, and stake his life and fortunes in their cause. It was a dark and gloomy hour for Texas—Fannin and Travis, with two divisions of her gallant army were annihilated, whilst the last division was retreating in the very face of the enemy. They were times indeed "to try men's souls, when the summer soldier and the sunshine patriot retired from the service of their country."

But Texas was to be another example added to the chronicles of history, that the cause of freedom is that of God; when they, who would be free, are ready, in heart and in purpose "themselves to strike the blow."

Mr. Hunt, having assurances of a Brigadier-generalship, aided Capt. Fulton to raise a mounted company in Madison county, with the understanding that it was to be attached to his brigade. This company proceeded by land, whilst with Mr. J. Pinckney Henderson, whom he had induced to accompany him, he repaired to New-Orleans, in time to aid Gen. Thomas Green, who had 500 men ready to embark, but required $5,000 in funds to procure the necessary supplies and transportation. This amount Major Hunt at once procured by the use of his name, as it was deemed of vital import to the republic that the men should be there before any decisive engagement could take place.*

Before reaching Texas, however, the decisive battle of San Jacinto had been fought, but President Burnett entertained so high an appreciation of his zeal and spirit, that he at once tendered to Major Hunt the appointment of Major-General in the army, with power to appoint all officers of division! The appointment was accepted upon the condition that the enemy should attempt or indicate another invasion of the soil, and that the President should notify him of that fact. This notification was received in August, 1836, together with the request to bring into the field as many men as possible. Gen. Hunt at once appointed J. Pinckney Henderson and George S. McIntosh Brigadiers, and Ashbel Smith, Surgeon of Division—gentlemen who have subsequently distinguished themselves in the cause of Texas. He issued at the same time an address to the people of the United States, invoking in strong and eloquent terms their aid, and by October had chartered a vessel and shipped two companies from Norfolk, and paid the expenses of two others from North Carolina, by way of Memphis and New-Orleans. The invasion did not take place as expected, and President Houston desiring the army to be furloughed or disbanded, Gen. Hunt delicately tendered his resignation, which the President as delicately accepted in a letter of the 25th December, 1836, from which we extract:

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* In 1850, Mr. Hunt was married to Ann Talliaferro Howard, daughter of Tallaferro S. and Elizabeth Garnett Howard, formerly of Caroline county, Virginia, but more lately of Mississippi and Texas.

* His advances to the Republic of Texas were upwards of $28.000 in money, besides the pledge of his name for $5,000 more, which was raised; in all, $33.000, a larger sum than was furnished disinterestedly by any other individual. In these advances he aided to carry 500 men into the country, and supported besides about 300 more. A committee of the legislature in 1852, whilst passing upon his claims, were unanimous in using the following language, which, without mixing up ourselves in any way with a controversy about which we can know very little, we take the liberty of extracting:

"In reviewing this claim, the committee will add, that no one came forward more disinterestedly and liberally to aid Texas, in the most critical days of her struggle for liberty, than Gen. Hunt; he advanced over $28,000 in cash, without owning any pecuniary interest in Texas at the time; he not only advanced this money, but he gave his services to the country, and the archives of the Republic will show that very few engaged in the revolution, performed more important and useful services than he did—his losses by the neglect of his private affairs, in devoting himself to the service of his adopted country, are known to have been large. The original amounts due to Gen. Hunt were advanced by him with the assurance of the government that they would be speedily refunded—he made no contracts for forfeitures, bonuses or interest—others did, and have received them. All that he now asks is to realize the principal he advanced, and the interest universally allowed for all advances of money made to the Republic up to 1840."

"I received your resignation with extreme regret, and that regret was increased. because the course pursued by you, evinced a delicacy which has commanded my admiration, and profound respect. * * * *

"So far from increasing the difficulties which inure to the government from the course pursued by my predecessor, you have generously withdrawn all pretensions, and have preferred nothing in your behalf, not even remuneration for the advances which you have made, in behalf of the government, of a pecuniary character.

"Should an invasion take place, as is highly probable at this time, you may rest assured that I will continue to regard you with great solicitude, and in estimation of your patriotism, zeal and activity in our cause, I will hail your return as a citizen, with pleasure, and place you in the most desirable situation within my control. Believing, as I do, that your worth as a man, and qualifications as an officer, will be sure guaranties for your future usefulness and distinction in the cause of liberty, I am, &c. &c."

General Hunt, after notifying the President of his readiness to return at any moment the cause of Texas might require, prepared to depart for the United States, but was met on his way by letters from the Cabinet, indicating the desire of General Houston for his immediate appearance at the seat of government, upon business of vital importance. Complying with the request, he had the high but unsolicited and unexpected honor conferred upon him of Envoy and Minister Plenipotentiary to the United States.

Having reached Washington, it was found that the Hon. Wm. H. Wharton, diplomatic agent of Texas, had caused to be introduced into the lower House of Congress, a resolution of recognition, which was lost by a majority of 16 votes. General Hunt recommended a resort to the Senate as the more appropriate body for matters relating to the executive and diplomatic matters of the country. President Jackson having indicated a disposition favorable to the recognition of the independence of the Republic of Texas, if Congress would recommend the measure. After a sharp contest and a close vote, in which the envoys were sleepless at their post, the resolution passed the Senate. A more difficult matter, however, remained to be performed in the House, to wit, the removal of the opposition of the majority of 16. in order to have inserted in the civil and diplomatic bill an appropriation for the salary of a Chargé d'Affaires to Texas. But the intelligence and exhaustless energy of the Texan diplomatic agents were again rewarded with success. A single obstacle now existed. General Jackson's administration was at its close. The old hero doubted if propriety or delicacy towards his successor would justify any action on his part in the expiring hour of his rule. He at last firmly declined, notwithstanding every solicitation. The crisis was considered important. The temper of Mr. Van Buren was doubted and feared. Everything might yet be lost. On the very last day—nay, the very last hour of General Jackson's term, General Hunt carried in person to the Executive mansion, a letter prepared by himself and colleague, intreating the call of a Cabinet Council and the speedy act of *recognition*. The President yielded. The Cabinet was called, and its very last act was the appointment of Alcede Labranche, Chargé to Texas, though owing to a defect in his own credentials, General Hunt was not formally received as minister before the 6th of July, 1837.

General Hunt addressed a letter, 4th August. 1837, to the Hon. Jno. Forsyth, Secretary of State, proposing the subject of annexation, which, with a reply from that gentleman and a rejoinder, make a part of the history of the times. He also signed a treaty of limits of the two republics in the spring of 1838, and on leaving Washington was tendered and accepted a dinner offered him by Messrs. Calhoun. Clay. White, Preston and other members of both parties in congress.

On the subject of annexation the papers of General Hunt were among the very ablest. and he was the very first officer of the Republic to announce publicly the expediency of that measure. Among these papers were the letters to Mr. Forsyth above referred to, the letter advocating Mr. Polk's election as indispensable to the end, and the address as Chairman of the Galveston Committee in favor of accepting the joint resolution of Congress. More lately General Hunt addressed a letter to the Auditor and Comptroller of the State, upon the subject of its indebtedness, an able document, which discusses at length every financial transaction of the government, from its provisional establishment in 1835 down to the period of annexation and of state sovereignty. In this he urges, upon the strongest grounds, a recommendation which he was the first to make of the sale of the North West Territory to the United States for Indian purposes. and proposes further, by means of the sale. to extinguish the liabilities of the state at their par value, (as advocated in the report of a committee at the last session of Congress.) rather than by the scaling system which has been adopted. The disinterestedness and public spirit of this suggestion is more clearly indicated in the fact. that, on the principle of the *scaling* system, his own claims, as shown in the address, would have been paid in a sum greatly larger than by the course which he recommends. The address defends also, upon strong grounds, the right of Texas to the Rio Grande boundary.

Five months after his return to Texas. Nov. 1838, General Hunt was appointed by President Lamar, Secretary of the Navy, and succeeded in inducing several gallant young officers of the United States, among others, Commodore Moore, to resign their commissions, and attach themselves to the Navy of Texas. During his administration Mr. Saligney, who had been dispatched by the French government to Texas, and whose official relations were with the navy department, at the instance of the Secretary of State, made his report, recommending the recognition of its independence. In 1839, he was appointed Commissioner to establish the boundary line with the United States, and soon after acted temporarily as Inspector General, to organize an army of 3600 men, by order of President Houston, to march against Mexico. He also acted temporarily as Adjutant General under Rusk, in anticipation of an invasion, and upon the first news of hostilities between the United States and Mexico, he, with seven others, proceeded in haste to the Rio Grande. and were the first to reach Point Isabel from the settlement of Texas. Palo Alto and Resaca had been fought. Here, with several Louisianians he joined Col. Hayes' Texas regiment, and advanced as far as San Fernando and China. On returning to Camargo. he was taken ill, and by the recommendation and at the instance of General Taylor. returned to Galveston. In this instance General Hunt preferred a place in the ranks to that of Aid-de-Camp, tendered him by Governor Henderson, and it was not the only occasion in which he performed active military service in this capacity.

General Hunt's connection with the Texan revolution exhausted a large estate, but his devotion to private affairs since the annexation has enabled him to accumulate a considerable landed interest which again renders his pecuniary affairs independent, and will make him wealthy when the railroads now chartered in Texas shall have been, as most of them will inevitably be, constructed in the course of a very few years. Texas has the resources and means for an immense empire, and if she is but true to herself, her destiny must be as proud as that of any sovereign state of the Union. She has but to be wise and liberal, and capital and population will flow into her without practical limit. Hers is the true El Dorado. She is in the path of that "Orient Ind" for which our great railroads would strike; but they need not pass through her to find all the wealth that heart could covet. Let Texas but construct her great central road, for which General Hunt is contending. and her transverse roads from Louisiana and Arkansas. to El Paso; her Gulf and San Antonio road; and Eastern fancy will not tell a tale of more magic wealth and power than will spring up to crown her labors and bless her toils.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—FLORIDA SHIP CANAL.

Mr. De Bow,—Permit me to call your attention to a subject of the most vital importance to the commercial interests of our Atlantic and Gulf States, to request your co-operation in bringing the matter before the public, and to furnish some information which may be useful, if imparted through your valuable Review.

The subject of a ship canal through the peninsula of Florida, is again demanding public attention; the impression from surveys long since made, is, that such a project is impracticable, and such is no doubt the case along the routes surveyed, but there is one which has not been examined, of the practicability of which I am certain.

In 1826, a law was passed authorizing the president "to cause to be made an accurate survey of the country south of the Saint Mary's, and including the same, with a view to ascertain the most eligible route of a canal, admitting the transit of boats, to connect the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico, and also with a view to ascertain the practicability of a ship canal." This survey was made by Major P. H. Perrault, of the Topographical Engineers, assisted by several other officers, and his report was returned in 1828. One of the routes surveyed, was from the Saint Mary's to the Saint Mark's, a distance estimated at 163 miles; the summit level on this route was found to be 152 feet above low water on the Atlantic coast; and it was found that the whole amount of ascent and descent would be 296 feet, but there were no feeders for a canal to be found. A second proposed route was from the fork of Black Creek to the mouth of the Santa Fee, which empties into the Suwanee; the distance 78 miles, and the summit level 126 feet. Here again, there is a deficiency of water for feeders sufficient for a ship canal; all the other routes examined, were deemed impracticable, chiefly from a deficiency of water to feed the canal. The following is a summary of this examination:

"The coast on the Gulf of Mexico, between Tampa Bay and Apalachie Bay, cannot be approached by vessels drawing more than 5 feet water! in this latter bay 8 feet can be carried at high tide to St. Mark's. Besides, the ridge of the peninsula of Florida has a mean elevation of 150 feet above the ocean, and its top does not offer, at any place, either natural reservoirs or heads of streams adequate to the supply of a canal having very large dimensions; therefore, a ship canal destined to connect through the peninsula the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico, is not practicable."

The harbor of Tampa Bay is the only one on the Gulf coast suitable, either by location, or accessibility, depth of water, or safety, for the terminus of a ship canal. There are some 24 feet at low tide over the outer bar, and ample depth thence, say 8 miles, to the bar at the mouth of the Manitee river. This river is the most available one emptying into the bay; the bar at its mouth is narrow, composed of sand, can be easily excavated, and has nine feet water at low tide; the tide rises about three feet.

No coasting vessel passing through this canal to any of the Gulf ports, need draw more than 16 feet, and ships passing can readily afford to wait for the tide at the terminus; therefore, an excavation of 4 or 5 feet would give ample water on this bar. The banks of the river are sufficiently bold to admit of the elevation of the water six feet above low tide, and probably 8 feet, by the construction of a dam and lock. After entering the river, we have an average depth of about 8 feet, for the first 12 miles; the proposed dam would increase this to from 14 to 16 feet, making very little excavation necessary; for in many places in this distance we have from 2 to 3 fathoms at low water. This brings us to a section, admirably adapted to the construction of a lock, which would raise the level 12 feet higher. The channel of the canal in this section, would pass through a species of hard clay, affording a substantial basis. From this point, the land rises gradually, until it attains an elevation of from 40 to 50 feet above low tide; here we find a flat table land, filled with large ponds, which, during the rainy season, become full to overflowing, and furnish the waters which flow to Tampa Bay on the west, to the Everglades on the southeast, and to the Saint John's on the northeast. The line would pass along the northern margin of Lake Isteokpoga, due east to Indian river; passing the Kissimee river, which empties into Lake Okuchoba. This river would furnish an ample supply for a canal of the largest magnitude.

The waters of Indian river are probably shallow, but an artificial harbor could be constructed at a cost insignificant in view of its importance. The whole distance from the bar at the mouth of the Manitee, to its debouchure on the Atlantic, would be about 120 miles; the total ascent and descent, between 50 and 60 feet.

Indian river furnishes an inland navigation along the Atlantic coast of about 120 miles; about one half of which lies north, the other south of the proposed Atlantic terminus. A cut of about 12 or 15 miles would connect the northern extremity of Indian river with the navigable waters of the St. John's, thus furnishing a safe inland navigation for light-draught steamers to the entrance of the canal on the Atlantic. A few dams and locks on the upper waters of the St. John's would admit the boats which ply from Savannah to Jacksonville, to the waters of the Indian river, and thence through the canal to the Gulf. It is not necessary to comment upon the vast importance and value of this great work, to our whole country, its great value in peace, its infinite value in a period of war. I have been as succinct as the subject would admit. If you think it worth admission, I will be pleased to see it advocated in your publication.

I am confident in the adoption of the route, if Government will have it examined by competent officers; and I am inclined to think that it can be constructed at a cost not much exceeding that of a first-class English railroad per mile.

Very respectfully yours,
ROBERT GAMBLE, JR.

2.—IMPROVEMENT OF MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

The present condition and the still more menacing future of the Mississippi River, has, some time since, been the object of serious discussion, and I think it will be permitted, to a technical man, to give his individual views on that important subject. There are two evils attending this river, each disastrous in its consequences, but so different and even contradictory in their origin, that it would be impossible to check them both by one and the same remedy. The annual overflow of the Mississippi, with its attending destruction of life and property, takes its origin in the river's bed not being large enough to discharge promptly the vast amount of water caused by the melting of snow in spring. The gradual obstruction of its bed by sand bars and mud banks is evidently caused by too great a width of the bed in proportion to the amount of water carried down to the gulf in ordinary times.

To remedy, as is proposed, the former evil, by opening artificial outlets or clearing out the present channels of the river, would evidently increase the second evil, whereas the cutting off the numerous bends of the river, would still more shorten and lessen the space required by the surplus water in spring time, and thus increase the danger of crevasses.

I do not think that a more efficient remedy against crevasses and other more harmless overflows could be found, than the construction of good and solid levees. These, if properly constructed, will prove an efficient bulwark against any amount of water that may be apprehended even from the "father of rivers." The Dutch have protected their low lands from the fury of the sea by levees; they had no more nor better material than we, and certainly not so rich a country to protect. But certainly a levee, to be efficient, must be skilfully constructed—more skilfully than is generally done. To see, as I have often seen along the banks of the Mississippi, on the most exposed points, the levee in sharp angles protruding, thus offering a broad side to the direct impetus of the waves, can certainly give but a poor idea of the skill of the constructor. I pretend there is not a point on the river so exposed, that with proper curves and sufficient thickness of levees, a perfect shield against any high waters might not be secured at by no means extravagant a cost. The employment of practical engineers as permanent Levee Inspectors, for reasonable distances on both sides of the river, cannot be too strongly recommended.

As to the alarming obstruction of the river by sedimentary matter, more particularly at the mouth, I think there is no other remedy to be found than the closing of all the superfluous outlets, several of the passes not excluded. This would be a gigantic, but by no means impossible measure. There are numbers of flat-boats arriving daily at New-Orleans, selling at half cost, say fifty dollars in average—they might be carried down to the passes that are to be shut up, and sunk in a proper place, and with proper care charged with whatever materials will be best at hand. A pass once shut up in a favorable season, the current will soon open a broad and deep channel in the loose sand of the remaining passes.

The experiment will cost no enormous sums, and I do not think I am visionary in anticipating great results from such a measure.

Nashville, August, 1852.

3.—SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTE.

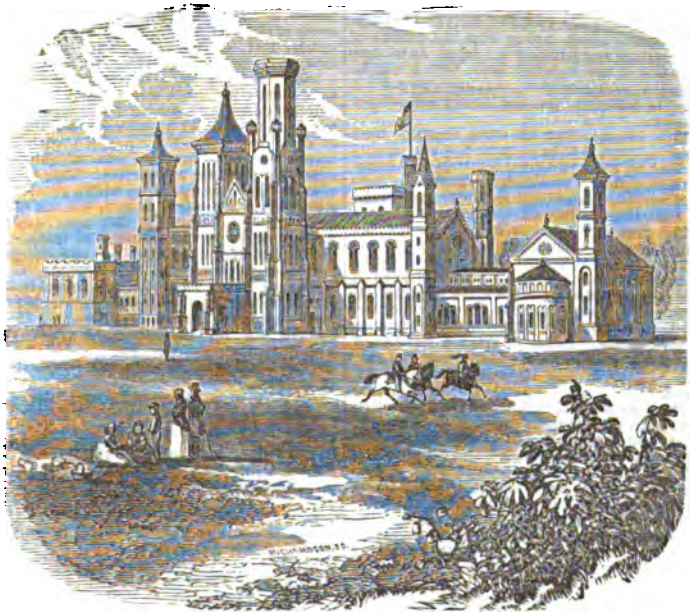
We lately had the pleasure of visiting this magnificent institution, and were indebted to Professor Henry for courtesies we should be glad to reciprocate.

The following extract from Norton's Literary Gazette, together with the wood-cut, will be received by all of our subscribers with interest and satisfaction.

The Smithsonian Institution derives its name and endowment from **James Smithson**, Esq., of England.

Mr. Smithson was a son of the first Duke of Northumberland. He was educated at Oxford, where he distinguished himself by his scientific attainments. In 1767, the year after taking his Master's degree, he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. To the "Philosophical Transactions" he contributed, at different times, eight valuable papers. He was an associate of most of the eminent men of science of the last generation in England, and was much respected for his proficiency in the department of chemistry, as well as for his amiable and unassuming manners. He had no fixed residence, and formed no family ties. The last years of his life were spent mostly on the continent, and he died at Genoa, June 27th, 1829.

From the property which he received by his mother, and the ample annuity allowed him by his father, his frugality enabled him to accumulate a fortune, which, at the time of his death, amounted to about 120,000 pounds sterling.



SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTE.

By his will, he directed that the income of this property (after deducting some small annuities) should be paid to his nephew, Henry James Hungerford, during his life, and that the property itself should descend to his children, if he had any, absolutely and for ever.

"In case of the death of my said nephew without leaving a child, or children, or of the death of the child or children he may have had, under the age of 21 years, or intestate, I then bequeath the whole of my property (subject to the annuity of 100 pounds to John Fitall, and for the security and payment of which I mean stock to remain in this country,) *to the United States of America, to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men.*"

Young Hungerford died at Pisa, on the 5th of June, 1835, without issue. The event thus occurred, in which the claim of the United States attached. The particulars of the bequest were communicated to our government, and both houses of Congress passed a bill, which was approved the first of July, 1836, authorizing the President to appoint an agent to prosecute in the Court of Chancery of England, the right of the United States to the bequest; and pledging the faith of the United States to the application of the fund to the purposes designated by the donor.

Hon. Richard Rush, of Philadelphia, was by the President appointed the agent of the United States. He proceeded to England, instituted a suit in the Court of Chancery, recovered the fund and paid it into the Treasury of the United States, in sovereigns, during the month of September, 1838.

The amount of the fund at this time, was

$515,169. It was not till eight years after this period, 10th August, 1846, that the act establishing the Smithsonian Institution was finally passed.

The act establishes a permanent loan of the original fund ($515,169) to the United States at six per cent. interest ; appropriated the accumulated interest, then amountng to $242,129, or so much as might be needed, together with so much of the accruing income as might be unexpended in any year, for the erection of a building ;' provided for the establishment of a library, museum, chemical laboratory, &c., and left most of the details of the organization to the Board of Regents.

As the result of the conscientious labors of the Board of Regents, a plan of organization has been adopted which seems to give universal satisfaction, and promises the widest usefulness.

The cost of the building is limited (with furniture, grading the grounds, &c.) to $250,000. This will be taken mostly from the income of the original and building funds, so as to save $150,000 of the building fund, which will be added to the original fund, making a permanent fund of $675,000, yielding nearly $40,000 per annum.

This income, with all sums received from other sources, is to be permanently and equally divided between two great methods of increasing and diffusing knowledge—the first by publications, researches and lectures—the second by collections of literature, science and art.

The first two volumes of a series entitled "Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge," in 4to., have been issued ; also, several works in a series of a more popular character, and in 8vo. form, entitled "Smithsonian Reports." It is proposed, also, to publish for still wider circulation, a monthly "Bulletin." Researches in various departments of science have been instituted, or aided by the institution, and several courses of free lectures have been delivered.

The various publications of the institution have been very liberally distributed among the literary and scientific institutions of this country, and of foreign countries.

The library has been commenced ; and although the funds have not been available for its rapid growth, it is destined, we hope, to meet that great want of American scholarship, a National Library for reference and research. Measures have been taken, also, for supplying the Cabinet of Natural History and the Gallery of Art.

The building is in the later Norman or Lombard style. It consists of a centre and two wings, united by connecting ranges. Its extreme length is 447 feet, and its greatest breadth 132 feet. It is adorned by nine towers, the highest of which is 145 feet. The central portion of the building contains, on the first floor, a library, 134 feet by 50, divided into alcoves, and a hall for philosophical apparatus, 65 feet by 50. The second story contains the museum, 200 feet by 50. This is divided into three aisles, the centre aisle being 40 feet in height.

The east wing contains a lecture-room, capable of accommodating one thousand persons. The eastern range contains laboratories, workshops, rooms for apparatus, offices, &c.

The western wing and range contains two large rooms, one of which will be used as a Reading-Room. Beneath are rooms for unpacking books, and other purposes of the library.

4.—LAFITTE.—PROFESSOR INGRAHAM'S LETTER.

The following note, with which we have been favored by Prof. Ingraham, is an amusing comment upon the controversy which has sprung up in regard to this traditional and historical personage, about whom we suffered ourselves once to be put out of temper, though, upon our word and honor, we never cared a pinch of snuff whether his reputation were that of pirate or pedlar. We simply published in the first instance a graphic, though highly embellished sketch, which was furnished us by a literary gentleman of Louisiana, the correctness of which, we said, was vouched for, *using his own language*, upon a number of authorities, which were set forth. Every one could weigh the value of these authorities, and the paper was published, as every editor in the Union is accustomed to publish, *upon its own merits*. What has restored our good humor, however, is, that we observed in the columns of the very journal which called us so severely, and, as we think, ungenerously, to task, in classing ours among "other fictitious works," and italicising its claims to *veracity*, before even the ink of the criticism had dried, a notice under the editorial head most flattering in its terms, and associating the Review, in rank and "scientific" position with Silliman's Journal,—certainly one of the most *veracious* journals in America. This opinion of our labors corresponding with a great many others from the same source, for which we have always entertained the most grateful feelings, we try to flatter ourselves, comes from the heart ; though the other is quite disagreeable enough, upon the old principle, to be nearer the truth. The Delta has gained laurels enough in its own short career (and none more than ourselves have rejoiced over them) to leave a few for its neighbors. Even the "pirate" Lafitte — we ask pardon of his memory, whilst we dismiss him—cannot rob us of these.

"ABERDEEN, MISS., Sept. 1, 1852.

"That Lafitte was ever a 'blacksmith' I cannot, in justice to my taste in the selection of a hero, for a moment entertain the idea. The romantic young ladies who have fallen in love with him, and the amateur juvenile buccaneers, who have admired him as a darling corsair, would never forgive me, should it prove so. It is not to be questioned that there have been very clever blacksmiths, citizens good and true ; and our own day has produced a *learned* blacksmith. There is Vulcan also, who has doubtless done much to ennoble the profession ; but as modern heroes of romance do not usually

'On thundering anvils ring their loud alarm,
And puffing low the roaring bellows blow,'

I must beg leave to protest against Captain Lafitte being biographized into a blacksmith ! To exchange his picturesque costume for a leathern apron ; 'that Damascus blade' for a rusty iron hammer ; those 'jewelled fingers' for sooty fists ; that 'darkly flowing plume' for unkempt locks,

'With cinders thick besprent ;'

his quarter-deck for the mud floor of a forge ; and the

'Glad waters of the dark blue sea,'

for a cooling trough ; and all the buccaneering splendor of his aristocratic person, for

'Sinewy arms and shoulders bare,

His ponderous hammer lifting high in air ;
While bathed in sweat from forge to forge he flies,
'Mid sulphurous smoke that blackens all the skies !'

—I must positively protest against smutting the fair fame of the elegant 'Pirate of the Gulf' by admitting for a moment the possibility of such a thing. A blacksmith? The hero of the Mexique seas, a blacksmith ! Two duodecimo volumes of sentiment,[*] rose-colored at that, thrown away upon a shoer of horses, and peradventure of asses ! Not even Vulcan's fame, god though he were, nor Venus' 'smiles celestial,' as she watches her sooty lord forging thunderbolts, not even the fact that he was the son of Jupiter and brother of Neptune, the god of the Sea, on which Lafitte achieved his romantic name, can induce me to consent for a moment that this chivalrous and *very* gentlemanly pirate should be blacksmithed down to posterity ! What would become of all the romances that make him the fighting Adonis of the seas ! We shall next learn that Ivanhoe was a tailor, the Red Rover a cobbler ; and that the 'Last of the Mohicans' sold old clothes ! We should handle these two-volumed-novel heroes, especially nautical gentlemen, my dear Mr. De Bow, with the softest doeskin-encased fingers.

"But to reply more seriously to your inquiry: I have every reason to believe Lafitte to have been, if not gentle-born, well born, and educated with some degree of refinement. At this late day I cannot furnish you with very authentic information that would serve as data for a faithful biographical memoir. Seventeen years ago I gathered from various sources, from persons who knew Lafitte well, and from others, many facts which I wove into the fabric of my romance. Since then other facts have been related to me, all of which have led me to the conclusion that he was an intelligent man, brave and chivalrous, with the bearing and amenities that distinguish the courteous Creole,—and a Creole undoubtedly he was by birth and education. He first prominently made himself known by certain smuggling operations, by which he introduced rich freights into New-Orleans, furtively conveyed from the Gulf through bayous. In these enterprizes he was aided by the means of merchants who in a few years were enriched by this unlawful commerce. When at length M. Lafitte, who was in their confidence, and had also made great gains, learned that he was watched, and that efforts were being made to entrap him into the custody of the law, he abandoned this perilous pursuit, and with his two or three small vessels lent his aid to one of the struggling republics of the Spanish main. Success in arms seems to have rendered him bolder and more ambitious ; for the following year we hear of him actually buccaneering on the coast of Texas, and carrying on a system of spoliation, —respecting no flag that came into his power Some depredations upon the coastwise navigation of Louisiana drew down from Gen. Claiborne a proclamation upon him, appended to which was a large reward promised for his head !

"Such, so far as I could ever obtain it, is the outline of his career up to the beginning of our war with Great Britain ; and this outline I filled out in the novel, with the usual free creations of the romancer's pen. Although authentic enough for fiction, it wants the rigid versification which a biography calls for.

"At the time the war broke out, (1812–15,) Lafitte had his rendezvous at Barrataria, a picturesque bay on the Gulf coast, less than fifteen leagues from New-Orleans. His sympathies were enlisted on the side of the Americans ; and it is a matter of well-authenticated history that when the English commander would have bribed him to conduct them by the secret avenues of the bayous to the city, he refused their bribes of gold and naval rank with disdain ; and in the face of the proclamation for his head hanging over him, he presented himself before Governor Claiborne and volunteered his arms, vessels, and men, in the service of his native state.

"That he was at the battle of New-Orleans, as asserted by you, and served one or more guns with his crews, there can be no question. I have had pointed out to me on the field the very spot on which he was posted, it having been close to the river on the extreme right of the American line. The account in the novel is faithful to the narrative of his conduct there as told to me. If you have at hand a copy of Marbois' History of Louisiana, or Latour's, you will in one or perhaps both of them find a correspondence between Governor Claiborne and President Madison, in which the fact of his presence in the battle and his gallantry in maintaining his position, is not only stated, but is, I think, advanced as good ground for the clemency of the executive. But it is so many years since I have thought of the subject, that I have quite forgotten where I found many of my facts made use of in the novel ; and it is barely possible I may be incorrect in referring you to Marbois, as I have no copy by me by which to verify my reference. Col. Chotard, of Natchez, commanded, in the defence of New-Orleans, a troop of Mississippi horse, the only cavalry, I believe, in the battle. A letter to him would no doubt elicit what knowledge he possesses upon this point. Governor Poindexter, of Louisville, was also in the action as aid to General Jackson. Either of these gentlemen could give certain information touching Lafitte's presence at the lines on that day.

"That there were *two* brothers is probable, though questionable ; yet, that there were others of the name is quite likely, as it is by no means an unusual name, either in the South or in France. There is but *one* Lafitte, however, who has any romantic or historical interest at all associated with his career ; and this personage is the veritable Barritarian chief, known as 'The Pirate of the Gulf,' the velvet-capped, sabre-armed, lofty-browed, glossy-locked, chiselled-lipped, tender, sentimental, courteous, throat-cutting Lafitte ! Whatsoever harmonizes not with the chivalrous character of this Barritarian hero and salt-sea gentleman, should be set down to the credit of his obscure namesake to whom you allude, and the events of whose life you conjecture have crossed and mingled with those of the *true* romance man. This personage may have been his brother, for ought that I know, and also have been a 'learned' or unlearned blacksmith, and, like Old Vulcan, have forged his more warlike brother's cutlasses and cannon. A sword has been presented to me by a gentleman of New-Orleans, Duncan Hennen, Esq., which was taken from Lafitte at the time of his capture ; and if one might venture an opinion from the rude, massive, cleaver-like fashion in which it is made, it was doubtless fabricated by this leather-aproned brother—a *first* effort, unquestionably, of the anvil-beating brother's smithy skill. Moreover, a six-pounder, which once belonged to Lafitte, was a few years since presented to me by a friend as a trifling souvenir of 'my hero.' It has such a very fierce, bull-dog look about the muzzle, and so rough a coat, that I have set it down as a first effort at rough casting of the hypothetical brother aforesaid. Mr. Tooke, who ought to know, says in his 'Pantheon,' that immortal English classic, how that Vulcan wrought a trident for his brother Neptune. Why then should not Lafitte, the junior, cast a cannon or forge a two-handed iron sword for his brother?

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[*] Lafitte—by Prof. Ingraham. 2 vols.

"Had I now at hand all the alleged facts which I once collected in relation to Lafitte, I could not offer them to you as authentic, not regarding them as sufficiently genuine material for a faithful memoir. I found, in my researches, twenty years ago, romantic legends so interwoven with facts that it was extremely difficult to separate the historical from the traditional. I am very sure that the same cause will make it *impossible* to arrive at the truth of his life. His only biographer at last must be the romancer!

"There is to be found in Mr. Timothy Flint's 'History of the Valley of the Mississippi' a chapter, the perusal of which first suggested to me the idea of writing the novel of 'Lafitte.' I inclose a copy of the chapter Mr. Flint was cotemporary with Lafitte, was a keen hunter of testimonies, and is to be regarded as good authority touching him as any one now to be found. He says, in brief space, all that I believe can be said with *certainty* respecting him; and he asserts, as you will perceive on reading this extract, that he *was* at the battle of New-Orleans.

"'A curious instance of the strange mixture of magnanimity and ferocity often found among the demi-savages of the borders, was afforded by the Louisianian Lafitte. This desperado had placed himself at the head of a band of outlaws from all nations under heaven, and fixed his abode upon the top of an impregnable rock,[*] to the southwest of the mouth of the Mississippi. Under the colors of the South American patriots, they pirated at pleasure every vessel that came in their way, and smuggled their booty up the secret creeks of the Mississippi, with a dexterity that baffled all the efforts of justice. The depredations of these outlaws; or, as they styled themselves, Barritarians, (from Barrita, their island,) becoming at length intolerable, the United States government dispatched an armed force against their little Tripoli. The establishment was broken up, and the pirates dispersed. But Lafitte again collected his outlaws, and took possession of his rock. The attention of the Congress being now diverted by the war, he scoured the gulf at his pleasure, and so tormented the coasting traders, that Governor Clairborne, of Louisiana, set a price on his head. This daring outlaw, thus confronted with the American government, appeared likely to promote the designs of its enemies. He was known to possess the clue to all the secret windings and entrances of the many-mouthed Mississippi: and in the projected attack upon New-Orleans it was deemed expedient to secure his assistance. The British officer then heading the forces, landed at Pensacola for the invasion of Louisiana, opened a treaty with the Barritarian, to whom he offered such rewards as were best calculated to tempt his cupidity and flatter his ambition. The outlaw affected to relish the proposal; but, having artfully drawn from Colonel N—— the plan of his intended attack, he spurned his offer with the most contemptuous disdain, and instantly dispatched one of his most trustworthy corsairs to the governor who had set a price for his life, advising him of the intentions of the enemy, and volunteering the aid of his little band, on the single condition that an amnesty should be granted for their past offences. Governor Claiborne, though touched by this proof of magnanimity, hesitated to close with the offer. The corsair kept himself in readiness for the expected summons, and continued to spy and report the motions of the enemy. As danger became more urgent, and the steady generosity of the outlaw more assured, Governor Claiborne granted to him and his followers life and pardon, and called them to the defence of the city. They obeyed with alacrity, and served with a valor, fidelity and good conduct, not surpassed by the best volunteers of the republic.'—*Timothy Flint's Valley of the Mississippi*.

"The close of Lafitte's adventurous life is involved in an obscurity as profound as that which envelopes his early days, and doubtless,

'A corsair's name he'll bear to other times,'

whatever be the result of the researches now so diligently being made into his early history and subsequent career.

J. H. INGRAHAM.

J. D. B. DE BOW, ESQ."

5.—THE RAILROAD SPIRIT IN LOUISIANA.

A meeting has lately been held at Logansport, in Caddo Parish, over which Col. W. White presided, and of which Francis Martin was secretary. The chairman, Maj. Terrel, Dr. Robert Burns, and Maj. Cole, addressed the meeting; and the following preamble and resolutions were adopted:

Whereas, The Opelousas and Pacific Railroad has definitely progressed to Washington, in St. Landry Parish, and in consideration of the importance of its speedy extension to the north-west limits of the State of Louisiana, and that some practicable point on the Sabine River, as a terminus, should be designated, always taking into consideration the advantages emanating in prospective to our sister State of Texas as a starting-point for her main trunk of Rail-road through said state to El Paso on the Rio Grande, and from thence to the Pacific Ocean,

Be it therefore Resolved, That this meeting nominate the town of Logansport, in De Soto Parish, on the bank of the Sabine River, as the most suitable point for the terminus of said road for the State of Louisiana.

Resolved, That this meeting recommend to the citizens of different portions of De Soto Parish to hold ward meetings for the purpose of promoting the extension of said road through said parish, and take such other action as may be necessary to that object.

Resolved, That the proceedings of this meeting be forwarded to J. D. B. De Bow and the Mansfield Advertiser, for publication.

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[*] Mr. Flint is in error, as we are all liable to be, in regard to "the rock." There is no rock on the northern shores of the Mexican Gulf in the neighborhood of the Delta of the Mississippi. Lafitte had a fort in the interior, "which still remains in tolerable preservation."

6.—VIRGINIA INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT CONVENTION.

We had the pleasure of attending, on the 19th August, one of the largest Internal Improvement Conventions ever held in Virginia, which took place near the Salt Sulphur Springs, and embraced much of the talent and enterprise of the state. It was never our fortune before to meet with so many progressive and energetic men congregated together, and, as far as we have been considered, and have considered ourselves advanced in the great industrial movements of the day, the spirit evidenced by these Virginians left us far in the rear, and we begun to entertain serious fears of being thought by them a veritable old fogie.

Among the prominent gentlemen it delighted us to meet were the Hon. Mr. Segar, who begun so far back to rouse up Virginia upon her public works, young as he yet is, that he may almost be considered a patriarch in the cause; Judge Mason, who is a host in defence of the canal and tide water against locomotives; General Ballard Preston, the able and powerful debatant; General Chapman, Mr. Botts, Mr. Garnett, Mr Ruggles, Mr. Macfarland, Mr. Watkins, Mr. Anderson, General Mercer, and many others whose names we hope to publish as soon as the official report of the Convention is furnished us by the Secretary. Most of these gentlemen made very able and powerful speeches.

Notwithstanding a great diversity of opinion, and the rival interests which were represented, the Convention, much to the surprise and delight of every one, after several days' sitting, adopted a preamble and resolutions, which gave universal satisfaction, and was hailed by every one present as a certain augury of the success of all of Virginia's great works. The platform was, of course, a compromise.

If we felt ourselves altogether adequate to present the result of these deliberations in a clear and intelligible manner, we should decline doing so, from the fact that several of the most prominent gentlemen of the Convention gave us their words that they would, at an early day, furnish for the Review papers upon the improvement system of Virginia, which would exhaust the subject in every point of view. We await with anxiety their labors, and trust that they will be reminded here of the promise.

This much we may say, for the benefit of the south-west, that it is now demonstrably certain Virginia will meet us at Knoxville and Chattanooga, by her Tennessee road, as soon as we can carry our works to the Tennessee River. So we may just go to work, might and main, without "waiting for the wagon."

For the courtesies extended to us by the members of the Convention, for the invitation to address it, though our preparation was short, and for the highly complimentary eulogiums which in their resolution they passed upon our services in the Review, we make the most grateful acknowledgments, and trust that an opportunity to reciprocate will yet be presented. If refined gold could be gilded, we might hope for a new *dominion* to spring up, and there is a new dominion coming, which will even be more lustrous than the old.

7.—VIRGINIA SPRINGS.

Great is old Virginia. She has great families, great men, great women, great mountains, (good heavens, what interminable precipices, looking down pernicious heights, over which our stage threatens every moment to deposit us, thundering and tumbling from crag to crag, and occupying, perhaps, as much time in becoming a mummy as it took Vulcan to reach terra firma, when, in days of yore he was thrust out of heaven!) Think of the Alps or the Apennines, Mont Blanc, Jura, Dover—vastness and grandeur everywhere combining—stretching out to the horizon, upwards and downwards, and to all points in the compass—you have these great prospects over which our eyes are sweeping, and which we have no pen to describe! (How worthily we might quote Byron here, were there a copy at hand.)

But great is Virginia, too, for her Springs, which have a celebrity as far back as the days of knee-buckles and hoops. Here all the world doth congregate. The "best families" are here, and those who are expecting to be—the belle and the banker, the maid and the matron, the bachelor and the Benedict—beauty, wit, intellect, refinement. *Reputed* fortunes many, *bona fide* fortunes less—*fortune hunters* countless! In search of health some, getting rid of health the rest, generally in the fast line. Here an old man, who, as his gout pinches, speaks disrespectfully of all Springs, and would go out of his way to kick at the equator—here an old —— (if women are ever old,) attired, as we fancy she might have been if forty years younger—a fop here—a flirt there- (how beautiful is coquetry, and how dear the shaft that kills.) Men of business are here—you see "per cent" and "exchange" in their faces—politicians, every man on the look out for bunkum, and shifting sails faster than Availability's winds can blow—lawyers, (but they are everywhere,) planters, who carry a thousand bales of cotton in their breeches' pocket; speculators, and gentlemen who can never be charged with not *playing their cards* very well—better than many like.

All of these are required to make up the Springs; but over all, and above all, are the gentry of Virginia; chivalrous men and fair women from all the South, those who constitute and make up that society which has no counterpart anywhere else in the Union. All is courtesy, refinement and virtue with them.

Let the South stand by the Virginia Springs. The rail-roads will soon bring them to our doors. No rude waiters jostle us, no insolent parvenues, no tricks and deceptions, no starvation, nor "Maine laws," no abolition praters, but congenial associations, warm hearts, warm friends, comfortable quarters, wholesome fare, good wines, reasonable charges, and water of every *hue*.

Take the *Salt* Sulphur, or, if you like it, the *Red*, or the *Blue*, or the *Sweet*, or the *Red* Sweet, the *White*, the *Bath Alum* or the *Rockbridge Alum*, the *Farquhar*—take your choice, or, if you like it, as we did, *take them all*.

Men of the South—direct your railroads towards the Springs of Virginia.

8.—PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD.

A writer at Emerald Hill, Arkansas, over the signature of Clinton, favors us with a long paper upon this subject, but as it has been so fully and so frequently discussed in our pages, we can only give an extract at present. Our heart has ever been in this enterprise, and scarcely any one was before us in its advocacy. The late failure of the rail-road bills in Congress was unfortunate. In regard to the recommendation of another convention at Memphis, we hardly know what to say, and prefer to submit it to the gentlemen of that enterprising city.

We have too many pleasant memories of the past not to jump at any invitation from that quarter.

"This *first* step has not yet been taken in a way to give it the requisite impetus to success, and the question is, how shall we make it. We would humbly suggest that it can only be done by embodying public sentiment in convention, and giving it a form, the power of which could not fail to be effective. We would suggest Memphis as the most central point of the Mississippi Valley at which that convention should be held in time to act by the meeting of Congress, say November 20th. The presidential election will then have passed with its prejudices and excitement, affording the friends the leisure and disposition to attend. The action of such a convention, together with petitions directly from the body of the people themselves, would exert an influence in Congress that could not be otherwise than lasting and salutary. Hundreds of thousands of names may be had for the asking, if the proper papers are at once drawn up and circulated by the friends in every hamlet, town and city throughout the West. And thus much indeed might be certainly done, and we know the voice of the people, so expressed, is respected, and that when otherwise their will is made known, it is but too often reprehensibly neglected with impunity by our traffickers in party politics, employing themselves more with the view of personal promotion, than the promotion of the interests of the people. I wish, indeed, I were capable of giving utterance to my feelings upon this subject as its merits deserve. Sooner or later the work must be done, and I am sure it might be commenced now with certainty, if we would only speak out, in a way to be heard and heeded, and go about it in the right way.

"The benefits of rail-roads, as yet, have chiefly been dwelt upon in a commercial point of view, but the political, moral, and social influence they are to exercise upon our destiny is more to be appreciated. They are the *compromisers* that are to bring about a perfect reconciliation of interest and feeling—to make us what our constitution intended we should be—a united people, one and inseparable, now and forever When our system of rail-roads is perfected, then, indeed, will these states be the UNITED States of America.

"Great moral and physical causes are hastening on their agency. As, for instance, witness the explosion of steamboats, and other disastrous accidents, causing appalling destruction of human life on *water*. The voice of these victims, thus untimely hurled from time into eternity, speak to us from their graves. The widow and orphan ask that these things be done away with. The earth is man's proper element; upon it he was placed; he was told to take and inherit it."

9.—NOTES FROM ITALY.

We spoke in our last of the beautiful letter from Italy we were permitted to see, and which we have published and sent to the author in another form. We cannot resist the temptation to insert a few passages here, if the fair author will forgive us.– ED.

"I'm in Italy, M.—bright, beautiful Italy—the clime of poetry, romance and song—the home of the artist's dream. You know how radiant and ever sunny are her skies—how softly sleep the moonbeams on her marble palaces, and how ceaselessly the south winds make melody thro' the groves and clustering vines. We were strange dreamers, M., but some of our dreams were so very like the realities of them here, that I cannot separate them, and now, when I would tell you what I *see* in Italy, what we *dreamed* of it seems far the more vivid. You remember, dearest, the old woods behind "The Cottage," where, in the long, sunshiny days of summer, we loitered away the sultry hours, and you remember, too, the old copy of "Childe Harolde," which so often gave inspiration to our dreams, and bore us on the magic wings of genius to Italy. Find the book, M., and read over its copious marginalia, and it will bring back the old feeling so really, that the days that have passed since then will seem full of empty shadows. This old feeling comes over me as I write, and I am again on the mossy bank, in the shadow of those huge chestnuts—I hear the waters of the little spring trickling through the long grass at my feet—the air comes laden with magnolia breaths—and though oceans roll between us, I'm again by your side. Which is real, the walls of mossy stone, the huge window, which gives me so pleasant a seat, the strange, foreign-looking streets below me, now reposing in noon-tide stillness—or the old forest scene, the springing grass, the waving trees, the trickling waters, and the woodland perfume? * * *

"When I look out upon the bay, so beautiful in the gay sunshine, when a thousand crafts are dotting its silver brightness with their shadows, and would tell you what my heart feels of its loveliness, the memory comes up of those crowded shelves in the dim library of your cottage-home. The dark, stained ladder there, which our childish feet have so often ascended, is too familiar with your light weight, for me to flatter myself that what I would tell you, could bear the least charm of novelty to such a book-traveler as you are. But you love me, M., and love lends us new eyes, (though some strangely persist in calling the god blind!) so with them, you must look with me upon Naples. * * *

"You know, M., that strangers and tourists do not linger long in Naples; they say there is little to be seen here. And doubtless to one familiar with the gorgeous and the beautiful in art, as it is found at Rome, Florence, Venice, and other cities of Italy, the churches and picture galleries do seem uninteresting. Naples, as you first enter it, appears an elegant city, truly, but with little to distinguish it from many others; but we have found much, even in art, to please us here. Just from a land where the divinity of art is unrecognized, where the beautiful is ever sacrificed to the expedient, and where temples erected to the honor and for the worship of the Most Highest are undistinguished from the dwellings of those who erected them, we were easily pleased. But it is not art that charms me so in Naples, it is Nature—it is this peace-breathing sky,—this clear, sun-bright atmosphere,—this calm, glittering bay, spread out like liquid silver before me,—yon sombre mountains, and these picturesque people."

10.—SOUTHERN AGRICULTURAL CONGRESS.

The Executive Committee of the Southern Central Agricultural Society of Georgia have issued an address, inviting the planters to send delegates to the October meeting at Macon, in order to adopt measures for an agricultural congress of the slave-holding states at some future day.

Though we protest against some of the opinions of the address in regard to the subject of slavery, we would have published it notwithstanding, with a dissenting clause, had it been received in time.

There are a great many points, however, on which we do agree with the committee, and heartily, and those are, that the planters of the South sadly need organization—that they have much to gain by system, and much to answer for in neglect—that agriculture and the arts ought to be improved—that rail-roads ought to be built—that schools and colleges should be established, and that the negro should have the benefit also of every moral, physical and religious improvement. Upon these grounds we are in favor of the proposed congress, and recommend all the South to be present. One of the gentlemen connected with the Review, Mr. Martyn, will, we hope, be there, in order that we may receive full particulars of the sayings and doings for our pages. We regret our own inability to be present.

11.—BALTIMORE COMMERCIAL CONVENTION.

We trust that our friends in Baltimore will proceed vigorously in their arrangements for this important meeting, which they announce for December. Great and important interests are to be promoted, and it becomes us all to be sleepless and active. Gentlemen in other states disposed to co-operate, will address John C. Brune, Baltimore, or the Editor of the Review, at New-Orleans. We annex the circular:

"The extreme heat of the weather, with the absence of many of the most influential merchants of Baltimore, who take an active and deep interest in the commercial prosperity of the South, make it expedient that the contemplated meeting of the friends of southern commerce at Baltimore, be held immediately after the re-assembling of Congress in December next. The rapid accumulation of business in Congress at this time, demanding the constant attendance of members at Washington, has also suggested this course. By December the political excitement, incident to the presidential election, will have subsided, when the friends of southern commerce can meet and consult without annoyance from party misconstruction.

"The day will be hereafter fixed, of which you will be duly notified. Hoping that you will honor us with your presence at that time, with many of our southern friends, planters, merchants, &c., we remain, &c., &c.,

John C. Brune,
P. H. Sullivan,
Wm. Y. De Ford,
Chas. L. Oudeslays,
William M'Kim,
W. T. Walters,
J. C. Wilson,
John F. Pickerell,
Henry D. Harvey,
Wm. M. Hoffman,
Daniel J. Foley,
James Murray,
Wm. F. Murdoch,
Henry Tiffany,
George E Sangston,
George P. Kane,
Adam Denmead,
J. Hanson Thomas,
Wm. Bose,
Committee."

12.—MRS. M'CORD'S CAIUS GRACCHUS.*

The drama is not a favorite form in the poetical literature of the day, perhaps, because the fashion is rather to deal with the general and abstract, or to take a wider range in views of humanity than belong to the expression of individual feeling, or the portraiture of individual character. Our female writers, especially, have avoided this species of composition Some, indeed, have written fine poems cast in a dramatic form, but we know of no genuine tragedy or comedy, glowing with the vigorous exhibition of character and passion, or rich in the faithful delineation of life and manners, which gives the drama its substance and vitality, from the pen of an American woman. The poetry of the country has been almost exclusively lyric, didactic, or descriptive. Its themes are usually chosen from fireside experiences, and the thoughts and emotions of a contemplative existence, or from the various aspects of external nature; recollections of noble deeds, or sympathy with them, finding melodious expression, but seldom with such depth and pathos as to stir the soul in its recesses. The style of the muse at the present day, here as well as abroad, is a soft attractive mien and wealth of adornment, in contrast with the severe simplicity of her ancient garb. She appeals to the fancy—to the excitabilities, it may be said—rather than to the graver intellectual faculties. The banquet she offers is a store of sweets, choicely prepared and improved by judicious mingling of foreign ingredients, but the substantial aliment is often wanting—the strong meat by which the understanding grows and thrives; and where there is food for thought, it is rather in the way of suggestion, provocative of appetite, than a satisfactory supply. The air around is full of delicate harmonies, snatches of which may "lap in Elysium" for a brief moment; but we listen in vain for some master tone so fraught with power that were it long to inwrap us,

"Time would run back and fetch the age of gold,
　　And petty vanity
　　Would sicken soon and die,
And leprous sin would melt from earthy mould."

The generalizing spirit of the age contributes, without a doubt, to the present taste in poetry, and this is in a measure the effect of our political condition. The continuance of a state of things causing danger or distress, felt by every individual throughout the land, would concentrate the attention divided among a multitude of objects, and bring home the thoughts wandering to the ends of the earth. If a high degree of cultivation had been general, the scenes of our Revolution, enlisting the passions of individuals as well as involving the destinies of nations might have given a direction and a vigorous life to popular literature. But our ancestors were better qualified to act in those stirring scenes than to depict them artistically; they could fight their battles o'er again in the hearing of their children, but they were not competent to the use of the pen as the sword. The heroic matrons of that day could arm husband and son for the strife, could wield the soldier's weapons, or even write, as did Mercy Warren, the history of the struggle; but they were not skilled to build the lofty rhyme, and those who courted the muse, it must be confessed, lacked the genius which could burst through all clouds and shine with such splendor as to enlighten the world. The genial atmosphere and assiduous cultivation of later years might have shown them how to produce what would have been remembered with pride and profit by future generations; but in the process of refining the taste the stimulus was lost. As the female mind expanded with increased advantages of education, and the sunshine of national prosperity fostered the growth of art, the impulsive mental energy which seeks its outlet in creative action and vigorous utterance was less felt. The influence, too, of the prevailing school of English poetry, in which a sensuous brilliance of imagery and elaborate luxuriance of decoration had taken the place of the homely strength of former times, formed the popular taste in this country, raising up imitators of Byron and the Lake poets. Then the philosophical tendencies of the continental nations began to be engrafted upon the delicate growth of verse, and the German writers had their share in moulding its products. Questions of philanthropic interest were open to discussion, in which any might take part; and human rights, social relations, and the constitution of society, began to be canvassed. This kind of progress, enlarging indefinitely the range of mental action, is peculiarly unfavorable to the poetic art, particularly in the drama, which requires concentrated energy and development of its idea by direct and personal expression.

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* Caius Gracchus. A Tragedy in Five Acts. By Louisa S. McCord. H. Kernot. New-York.

The prevalent character of our poetry, fanciful, descriptive, impassioned, or superficially metaphysical, is illustrated in the productions of most of our female poets, those of the East receiving the first impulse, and those of the West echoing the like strains in various degrees of melody. Scarce one has written in a style so different from the rest, that any of her works have a distinctive character essentially unlike the others; all wear the same features and belong to the same school, and very few, we are bound to say, on account of this want of individual originality, are destined to an enduring reputation. The South has been deficient in representatives. Except the lady whose work is the subject of this article, and Mrs. Gilman, who is not a native of South Carolina, it has had no poetess whose writings have commanded much attention. Yet in the agitated state of public feeling which has prevailed in South Carolina for some years past, exist important requisites for the nourishment and development of the poetic faculty in its greatest vigor. The idea of external oppression, exciting personal feeling, and turning the mind to the contemplation of examples of heroic resistance, has, in past times, produced the noblest specimens of eloquence, and plumed the wings of poesy for her most sustained flights.

It would hardly be fair, however, to attribute solely to political causes the fact that South Carolina has produced the only American poet whose productions may be said to belong to the elder school; which appeal to the intellect more than the fancy, and are marked by such sinewy strength of thought and expression as to be stamped at once with a character of originality. It is easy to see that Mrs. McCord is familiar with the early standards of those days when there were giants in English literature: her cast of thought and style of utterance show that she has studied them lovingly, and it is equally evident that the more ephemeral beauties of a later school have had little favor with her. She is wholly unlike any of her sisters of the lyre, and writes with a terseness, vigor, earnestness and masculine energy, which show her to be altogether of a different order. With the exception of a small volume of poems and an essay on Political Economy, she has published nothing before "Caius Gracchus." The choice of this subject, the severe classic simplicity of the play, in plot and incident, and the author's disdain of the accompaniments which have opened the way of others to a brief popularity, will prevent its acquiring a sudden reputation; yet it evinces powers of a very high and uncommon order, and deserves special attention as a brilliant anomaly in our literature, significant, perhaps, of a change that will greatly elevate its character.

In some respects, the author of "Caius Gracchus" resembles that poet of the wedlock of flame and iron—Elliott; but the production of which, we are continually reminded in her play, is Taylor's "Philip Van Artavalde." We mean not to imply that it is the least of an imitation; there appears no evidence that Mrs. McCord has even read that splendid work; but her's has the same force and quaintness of expression, the same compression of much meaning into few words, the same infusion of sarcasm with pathos, the same powerful and comprehensive thought and the same contempt of mere ornament, with the bold use of rhetorical figures, as it were, from necessity of strong utterance. In the first, second and third requisites to dramatic excellence—character—her claims cannot be denied; her personages are sketched with a sturdy strength of outline, and stand forth in perfect individuality; the interest depending on the exhibition of character more than upon any artistic grouping of incidents. In this point, and in the neglect of adventitious aids, the work also bears a likeness to the poem above referred to, commending itself, like that, to the appreciation of the discriminating few, rather than the applause of many readers.

The story of Caius Gracchus is so well known, that it is unnecessary to occupy space with an analysis of the tragedy. It has furnished a subject to the Italian poet, Monti, for the finest of his dramatic creations, which is, however, inferior as a whole to this of our countrywoman. The eloquent appeals of Gracchus to the people, the senate, and his followers, the rivalry and rancor of Opimius, the plans and passions of their several adherents, and the noble love and heroism of Cornelia, are highly dramatic materials, capable of being wrought up with intense effect. To show how skilfully they are handled by Mrs. McCord, would be to transcribe the play.

The whole of scene fourth of the fifth act, descriptive of the strife and slaughter, and the scene of Gracchus' death, are among the finest specimens of dramatic poetry within our recollection; but want of space excludes them. And it is only fair to add, that but partial justice can be done the piece by extracts. Her versification is remarkably correct and melodious, and the frequent use of uncommon words, yet appropriate and expressive, gives quaintness and piquancy to the diction. Throughout is evident the writer's partiality to old models in English verse. Among the prominent characters, that of Licinia, the youthful wife of Gracchus, is exquisitely portrayed, and appears in a touching and beautiful light beside the noble matron, Cornelia. The covetous, treacherous Septimuleius is also well drawn.

The author's resistance of the temptation to invest her tragedy with the attractions of the romantic school, and strict preservation of the classic spirit and costume, constitute one of its prominent merits. Her acquaintance with the poets of Greece and Rome in their own language, has enabled her to impart to it a purely classic tone which no unlearned writer could have given. We know of no modern English tragedy except "Ion," which has so much of this.

On the whole, we regard "Caius Gracchus" as a production not only remarkable as marking the commencement of a new era in our literature, indicating a returning of taste to the old and admirable standards which held the popular affection before "the torchlight put out the starlight," but as evincing powers equaled by none of our female writers, and which in future works will command an enviable fame; though, if she write nothing else, "Caius Gracchus" is enough to enrol her name among those of whom the country will be proud.

13.—LATE PUBLICATIONS.

Gayarre's Address at the Commencement of the Centenary College. The author has pointed out for youth its bright pathway, and worthily admonishes of the breakers and the quicksands. We are glad to find him thus encouraging the educational movements of his native state, and we know of no more worthy recipients than the faculty of the Centenary College, which is becoming a matter of state pride.

Men of the Time, or Sketches of Living Notables. Published by Redfield, New-York. An invaluable work, including biographies of authors, architects, artists, composers, demagogues, divines, dramatists, engineers, journalists, ministers, monarchs, novelists, philanthropists, poets, politicians, preachers, savans, statesmen, travelers, voyagers, warriors.

Hague—A Story of To-Day, by Alice Carey.—Redfield, New-York.—The principal incident in this story will be recognized in Clovernook, by the same author, as founded on a tradition once familiar in that neighborhood. The characters are sketched from originals.

Harpers' Magazine for Sept.—We are one of the 100,000 readers of this excellent monthly. The world itself presents no other instance of 1,500,000 copies of a single magazine published in twelve months.

Slavery in the Southern States, by a Carolinian.—A judicious answer to Mrs. Stowe's transcendental pictures of Uncle Tom's Cabin; but why waste material upon such sentimental stuff? The South ought to know, however, that a representation of this abolition libel is taking place in one of the most popular theatres of New-York, and ought to see that its own managers never tolerate upon our boards any of the fanatics engaged in offering the indignity.

Grinnell Land.—An interesting paper by that extraordinary antiquarian, Peter Force—defending the American priority of discovery in the northern seas.

Memoir on the Tehuantepec Route, etc., By Wm. M. Burwell, of Virginia. As the author has been kind enough to promise us a paper reviewing the whole subject, with maps, &c., we refrain from any opinion at present.

14.—NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

Guy Mannering. Hart's cheap edition. A. Hart. Philadelphia.

Waverley; or, 'Tis Sixty Years Since. Do. do. A. Hart. Philadelphia.

Little Pedlington and the Pedlingtonians. 2 vols. By John Poole, Author of "Paul Pry." Appleton & Co., N. Y. J. B. Steel, N. O.

Maryland Two Hundred Years Ago. By S. F. Streeter.

The Discarded Daughter; or, the Children of the Isle. By Emma D. E. Nevitt Southworth, Author of "Deserted Wife." A. Hart, Philadelphia. J. B. Steel. N. O. 2 vols.

Bleak House. No. 5. By Dickens. Harper, N. Y. Morgan. N. O.

History of Consulate and Empire under Napoleon. By M. A. Thiers. Translated from the French by D. F. Campbell. With notes and additions by Henry W. Herbert. A. Hart, Philadelphia. J. B. Steel. N. O. Part XII.

Lectures on the Results of the Exhibition, delivered before the Society of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce, at the suggestion of H. R. H. Prince Albert. President of the Society. There are twelve lectures comprising all the prominent subjects of the Exhibition. A. Hart, Philadelphia. J. B. Steel, N. O.

15.—PROGRESS OF THE RAIL-ROAD MOVEMENT IN THE SOUTH-WEST.

Since the tax vote in New-Orleans for Railroad purposes, it is understood that property has appreciated in value 15 to 25 per cent., thus in a few weeks reimbursing the whole amount of the expenditure. Is there not something of magic in the whole of these rail-road results? When we declared in the convention a year ago "that New-Orleans would have to appropriate *millions*," respectable gentlemen all around smiled, and not a few thought that enthusiasm had run away with our wits. Yet already four millions are pledged by her, and (our reputation for prophecy is again at stake) in less than five years, city and state will stand pledged and committed to ten millions at least! Ponder upon that, men of Mobile and Charleston, and ye croakers of the North, who have flattered yourselves that New-Orleans was asleep so soundly, that nothing short of the trump of Gabriel could arouse her. The trumpet, if it pleases you, has already sounded.

Mississippi is seconding Louisiana. Every county is in convention and pledging stock; the eastern road from Brandon is secured; the northern road towards Holly Springs and Memphis; the Jackson extension to Florence. Tennessee links her fortunes on the line; Kentucky stands with open arms. Even Missouri and Arkansas would link on with Texas, and take up with us the western route to the shores of the Pacific. Glad consummation this, and why not? California has sent us treasure enough already to carry two railroads to her golden gates.

New-Orleans and Louisiana will remember their men—Robb, raised up by special providence to be the Atlas of the movement—Burke moving boldly and unfalteringly till arrested by the hand of misfortune; Benjamin, whose single glance embraces an entire field; White, though in years and in troubles, bringing up with the vigor of youth; Mouton, with all Attakapas at his back; Buckner and Adams, (alas! no more,) and Campbell and—but how invidious this list, where there have been so many true and approved men, as our pages have shown.

We are content—a humble laborer in the field from the beginning, encouraging the forces, bringing up the ammunition, or furnishing it out in wagon loads—we are content. The battle is fought and won; we were not hindmost in the fray. A private in the ranks, fighting on his own hook, asking no favor, fearing no frowns, regardless of promotion—we have been, and are, and *will be.*

16.—NEW POSTAGE LAW.

An important reduction will take place on the first of next month upon newspaper and periodical postage, which will bring this expense down almost to nothing. On the Review, if pre-paid, the whole postage of the year will not exceed from 18 to 25 cents. What a bonus offered to subscribers, who have in some cases paid in the past from $1 50 to $2.!

On our bound volumes, and on the volumes of the Industrial Resources, the postage will not exceed 10 or 15 cents each, cheaper than they could be sent as freight.

These are equivalent to a reduction of 33 per cent. on the subscription price of the Review and the Industrial Resources, and may we not expect a very large and rapid increase of circulation thereby?

17.—NOTES.

New-Orleans Annual Statistics must be postponed to our next, where they will appear very fully.

We thank a Traveler for his very interesting communication upon the Brunswick and Florida Rail-road Company, and will try and publish it entire next month.

A meeting was held at Selma, Alabama, which located the Alabama and Mississippi Rail-road Company, and agreed to put thirty miles uuder contract from that place to Uniontown. Surely Mississippi will meet Alabama on the line. The officers of the Company are Jas. L. Price, President; Messrs. John, Adams, Davidson, Goldsby, Walker, and Moore, Directors.

18.—COMMERCIAL CIRCULAR.

NEW-ORLEANS, 12th July, 1852.

SIR:—On assuming the liquidation of the liabilities of the late firm of Maunsel, White & Co., I took upon myself a responsibility that might well have startled a man of stronger and younger nerves than mine; but with faith in my integrity of purpose, I have, I hope, satisfied the creditors of that house, by the speedy settlements already made with them, and yet in progress, that they cannot possibly lose a cent on their claims.

As it will take me several years to bring the liquidation of the house to a final close, and having been solicited by some of my best friends to continue in business, I have concluded to do so. and herewith tender my services to my old friends and customers. In this, as well as in the collection of the debts, I will be assisted by my son-in-law, Carl Kohn, who will have my full power to act in every respect, in case of any temporary absence of mine from the city. Mr. Kohn has been regularly bred to business, has my entire confidence, and will hereafter be associated with me.

I do not intend to do any other than a legitimate *Commission business*, in the true sense of the word. I shall be ready to advance a reasonable amount on all consignments of produce, on the best terms, and furnish all plantation supplies, of which, being a planter myself, I know well what is necessary.

MAUNSEL WHITE.

WESTERN MILITARY INSTITUTE.

DRENNON SPRINGS,

Henry County, Kentucky.

The Annual Session of this College commences the second Monday in September. and the second *term* of the session on the first Monday in February of each year.

Its course of studies embraces the scientific course of the United States Military Academy at West Point. and thorough instruction in History. International and Constitutional Law. the Greek and Latin Languages. and Civil Engineering. Great facilities are also offered for the study of the modern European languages. A flourishing *Law School*, under the Hon. Thomas B. Monroe. a judge of the Federal Court. distinguished for high legal attainments. is connected with the Institute, and affords great advantages to the students.

The military feature introduced is not merely for the purpose of diffusing military knowledge. but as the means of exercising complete control, and of securing to the student the personal advantages of a uniform and economical distribution of time, habits of punctuality, health. physical development. and a consequent increase of mental vigor.

The location of the Institute is very healthy. and is removed from the allurements. the vices. and the dissipations usually incident to college life. Situated on the Kentucky River. it may be reached by steamboat from Louisville or Cincinnati. or by rail-road from Louisville to Eminence. on the Louisville and Frankfort road. and thence by stage to Drennon—a distance of twelve miles.

Institute charges for tuition. boarding. lodging. fuel. lights, washing. servants' attendance, and use of furniture and arms. $160 per session. Surgeon's fee $5 per session

Charges in the *Law School* for the above. and use of text-books, $160 per term. Each *term* commencing and ending with the semi-annual session of the Institute.

Students are received at any time, and charged from the date of entrance to the end of the session.

For further information. address the Adjutant or Superintendent, at Drennon Springs, Kentucky.

B. R. JOHNSON,
Superintendent.

TO THE

MEMBERS OF THE LOUISIANA BAR.

The undersigned has the following works relating to the Laws of Louisiana. which he is prepared to sell for CASH, at a very great reduction upon the prices formerly demanded.

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HENRY R. FROST, M. D., *Dean.*

* At a Special Meeting of the Trustees and Faculty of the Medical College, held on the 3d day of January, 1852, Dr. L. Agassiz was unanimously elected Professor of Comparative Anatomy, with the distinct understanding that the collegiate expenses of the Student are not to be increased by this addition to the course.

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SOUTHERN AND WESTERN

REVIEW.

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NOVEMBER, 1852.

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ART I.—HUNGARY IN 1852.

The territory of modern Hungary embraces the whole of ancient Pannonia, and about two-thirds of Dacia. It is, in general, a vast plain, sloping from the north, and having for its boundaries the rivers Danube and Save on the south, separating it from Turkey, and on the east, north and west, in part, the Carpathian mountains, which stretch from the Danube, near Presburg, in the form of a circle, to the north, east and south, until they arrive at the Danube again, at the place called the Iron Gates. On the extreme west, south of the Danube, the boundary is formed by the Leitha mountains, an arm of the Alps.

The area of Hungary is about 100,000 square miles, most of which is exceedingly fertile, well watered with navigable rivers, except in the east, and enjoying a fine climate. The whole country extends from lat. 44° 5′ on the south, to lat. 49° 39′ on the north, and between 14½° and 26½° of east longitude. The latitude of the country, therefore, is that of Maine and the southern parts of Canada.

All the numerous rivers of Hungary flow in a southeast direction, generally into the Danube. Besides the Danube, the other navigable rivers are the Theisse, the most important, navigable about 500 miles. The Save is navigable for vessels of 200 tons, up as far as the mouth of the Kulpa; and the Drave is navigable 280 miles. It is only within a few years past that steam navigation has been introduced upon the Danube and its tributaries. There is now established at Vienna, a navigation company, called "The Austrian Lloyd," which has now over fifty steamboats navigating the Danube and its tributaries. These boats are small, but neat, and perform the whole route between Vienna and Constantinople, through the Black Sea.

They are managed by English engineers. The navigation of the Danube by steamboats only dates back as far as 1830. Before that time the stream was descended by miserable boats and rafts, like the flatboats of the Mississippi. They also shared the same fate at the end of the voyage—that of being knocked to pieces for fire-wood. The trip up the river was performed in a species of canal boats, drawn slowly by some twenty or thirty horses, as the river is rapid. The introduction of steamers has, of late years, greatly improved the trade and travel of the Danube. Count *Szechenyi* has been the great master-spirit in these improvements, it being by him that the "Austrian Lloyd" was firmly established. It is said that the Austrian government are just on the point, if they have not already done so, of wresting forcibly from the hands of the company the whole of their steamers, and of assuming the entire navigation, it not wishing to have the interior communications of Hungary in the hands of any but Austrian officers.*

The navigation of the Danube is much obstructed in many parts, by the mill-boats afloat upon it. These boats are double, like some of our ferry-boats, with the mill-wheel, moved by the rapidity of the current, between the two. The other navigable rivers, particularly the Theisse, are very crooked, and subject to sudden risings.

It is not our purpose, in this paper, to dwell very extensively on the physical character and advantages of Hungary, but to devote most of our space to the present political condition of that unfortunate country.

To understand more fully the present state of political affairs in Hungary, it will be necessary to glance briefly at its political condition prior to the unfortunate revolution of 1848.

Passing over the more early periods of Hungarian history, in the year 1526, Louis II., king of Hungary, being totally defeated and slain by the Turks, in the battle of Mohaoz, by which he lost a large portion of his dominions, his brother-in-law, Ferdinand I., of Austria, succeeded to the throne, and was crowned king of Hungary, in 1527, since which time the Emperor of Austria has always been the king of Hungary. The Austrian princes have always been noted for their despotic conduct towards Hungary. In 1683, so oppressive had they become, that the Hungarian nobles, commanded by Tekeli, called in the Turks to aid them in shaking off the Austrian servitude. The Austrians, however, succeeded in driving out the Turks, and in settling the differences of the two countries by the treaties of Carlowitz and Passarowitz, in 1718. Hungary has since been on tolerably amicable terms with Austria until the last disastrous revolution. Austria, however, has never been disposed to concede measures sufficiently liberal to satisfy the leading politicians and reformers of Hungary.

The connection of Hungary with Austria was a very peculiar one. It was "as if Mexico should voluntarily unite herself with the United

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 74.

States, but still retaining not only her rights, as one state of the Union, but many other privileges which had belonged to her as an independent power, leaving to us the power of laying tariff duties and raising militia from her people, while we assumed her enemies as ours, and used her forces to repel any attack upon the Union. Further than this we must not go; we must lay no taxes on Mexico without the consent of her legislature; our postal system, our criminal law, and the jurisdiction of our courts are not to extend over her territory, and any great measure affecting the country must first be presented to her legislature before it could be effective; and lastly, our President, to be the legal President of Mexico, must be inaugurated there in Mexico. Such a union would be in its principal features a copy of the union which has existed been Austria and Hungary for centuries."*

The old Hungarian constitution, which existed in full force until 1848, was strictly feudal in all its parts, recognizing and enforcing, in all its totality, the monstrous, barbarous, and oppressive feudal system of the middle ages. It was dangerous, however, to alter it, as Austria ever made all attempts to alter the constitution, under which Hungary united herself with Austria, a pretext for interference. The independence of the country depended on its adherence to its old feudal constitution, bad as it was, and bad as it was acknowledged to be by a large majority of the Hungarians themselves. By this constitution the entire population was divided into two classes—serfs, and nobles or freemen.

All the lands and estates of the country were by law supposed to be the property originally of the nobles; and this is the ground upon which the exactions of the feudal system were founded. The serfs, however, either held lands as their own, or occupied those held by others. The exactions made upon them were in proportion to the amount of lands which they held. The serf holding an estate of from 21 to 56 acres, called a *sessio*, was subject to the full amount of feudal labor to the noble. The serf holding a *sessio* was required to labor for the noble 104 days in a year, with hard labor, or 52 days with oxen. The serf not owning land, and only occupying alone a house and garden, was required to labor 18 days in the year; but if he occupied them with others, 12 days were required. Every *sessio* was also required to furnish annually one person for a three days' hunt, the feudal master furnishing the *materiel*. The serf was also required to keep in repair all bridges on the property of the noble, and to furnish a wagon, with two or more horses, to soldiers or travelers who might demand it of the village judge, who allowed him 53 cents for every five miles he drove, which sum was deducted from his taxes. The feudal labor of so many days' work in a year was called *robot*. The obligation to furnish a wagon was called *vorspann*, which, although abolished by the country, at the time of the late revolution, has been revived by the Austrian government.

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 156.

The next burden of the serfs was that of the *taxes*. In the first place, the serf was obliged to pay *one-ninth* of all the principal products of his fields, of his wheat, corn, wine, and tobacco, to the noble, his hay and products of his garden alone excepted. The tax on his cottage was 40 cents a-year; then came the "domestic tax," for the support of the national parliament; and lastly, the "war-tax." The peasants or serfs were also forced to quarter the soldiery, and to furnish recruits when demanded; and they also paid a tithe to the Catholic church.

Such a system was grievous in the extreme, it must be admitted. It was, however, worse on paper than in practice, in some respects. The taxes were much lessened by the remarkable economy of the Hungarian government, as most of the noblemen taking part in it paid their own expenses, even when members of the parliament. The taxes were also greatly diminished, by there being no standing army ever supported in Hungary. "It may be doubted," says Mr. Brace, from whom we collect these facts, "whether these exactions, oppressive as they were upon the peasantry, were ever materially heavier than those which press upon the free peasantry of England now."*

It might be supposed, that great injustice and oppression would often be practised, under such a sytem, by cruel nobles. This was guarded against, by allowing the serfs to carry all cases of injustice before courts of law, in which the noble was obliged to pay all expenses. In all difficulties between serf and serf, the noble decided the case; but between serf and noble, a country magistrate was called in. If the serf was destitute of counsel, (which was seldom the case, as lawyers have ever been more abundant in Hungary than in the United States' even,) the *Amtsfiscal*, or State's Counsel, was obliged to plead for him. The serf had, further, the right of appeal to the Court of the Comitat, in certain cases, and even to the highest courts of the kingdom.

The Hungarian serf could marry as he chose. He could sell, pawn, or loan, all his property, movable or immovable—the property, however, in whose hands soever it might be, being perpetually subject to the feudal exactions. The serf, too, could buy himself *free* from all obligations and feudal burdens, and he could, by purchase, inheritance, or otherwise, accumulate a very considerable amount of property to himself, to the amount of 124 acres.† He also had some other minor privileges; and, indeed, his condition was greatly better than that of the serfs of Bohemia, Moravia, or in the Polish provinces of Austria. Still, however, the old feudal constitution of Hungary was the embodiment of an infamous system of oppression, for which there can be found no justification. The serfs, the great mass of the population, were deprived of all political rights, and obliged to support the idle and haughty nobility, and the expenses of a government in which they had no share.

It is not true, that all of the serfs of Hungary were of the Sclavonic races, and that all of the nobles were Magyars. There are millions of Magyar serfs, though, it is true, that those belonging to the Slavonic races were less intelligent, energetic and independent than the Magyars. They all, however, were true serfs, and bore the same feudal burdens. That the oppression of the feudal system was great and heavily borne, is proved by the vengeance the serfs wreaked on their masters, in many parts of Hungary, during the revolution. Among the Wallachians, the serfs inflicted every species of atrocity on their Magyar masters, who, in turn, punished them with unheard-of cruelties. The servile war was, however, confined to the Wallachian serfs. In the other parts of Hungary, the peasants formed quite as efficient and patriotic a corps in the army as any other class. They were among Kossuth's most enthusiastic supporters.

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 161.

† Ibid., p. 162.

The *Nobles* of Hungary are not nobles, in the sense in which the term is used in other countries, but more properly *Freemen*—a privileged class. The *nobility* in Hungary "were all those who had come to be allowed by law certain privileges of voting and holding property, which the other classes did not have. They might be bootblacks, or hostlers, or stone-cutters; but as long as they belonged by descent to this class, they enjoyed its privileges, and were '*Nobles*,' as the German writers call them. There would be an equal propriety, however, in calling all those in our own country, having the privileges of voting and holding office, '*Nobles*,' and those deprived of them, *serfs*."*

The privileges of the Hungarian nobles or freemen were, that they could not be imprisoned on suspicion; that in every trial their persons were sacred till sentence was pronounced, except in highway robbery, perjury, and high treason; that they could not be imprisoned for debt, or punished with corporeal punishment, and that they could appeal to the highest courts; that no person not a noble was allowed to accuse them, except through the city corporation or through his master. No one but a noble could purchase a noble's estates. All his property was exempt from taxation, from all tithes to the clergy or government, and from all payments of rates or contributions. The noble paid no tolls on bridges or highways, nor could soldiers be quartered upon him. He could dispose of his movable property as he chose, but not his inherited estates, which were secured to his family; and his descendants had the privilege of reclaiming a pawned estate, 300 years after the time of the contract.

The nobles, even if occupying the lowest position, were the exclusive possessors of all political rights. They elected all members of the National Legislature, or Diet, and all county or district officers. In all assemblies for taxing the people, regulating matters of internal government, and choosing magistrates and judges, the nobles alone had a voice. They, too, were the only ones who could hold office, even in the church, in earlier times.

At first sight, the evils that would result from such a monstrous system would be grievously oppressive; but the system has worked better than it promised, owing undoubtedly to the fact, that this class of nobles or privileged persons belonged to all grades of society, and were, in general, the most able, brave, and intelligent part of the community. The nobles did not represent nationalities, but were from all classes. Of the nobles there are some 80,000 Sclavonians, Wallachians and Germans; while, on the other hand, there are several millions of Magyars who are not nobles.

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 228.

The number of nobles or freemen, in 1842, was estimated by Fenyes at 550,000 in a population of 11,178,288, excluding Siebenbiirgen; or nearly every twentieth person a freeman, or voter and office-holder. According to the latest statistics of Hungary, there is one freeman for every fourteen inhabitants, the feudal system now being entirely swept away.

There were also, in various parts of Hungary, what were called Free Communities, embracing large tracts of country in which the inhabitants, solely peasants, had for hundreds of years enjoyed all the political privileges of freemen without coming under the head of nobles. Such are the Jazyges, the Cumanians, the Haiducks, and the Szecklers. These send their own members to parliament, and elect all of their officers. In like manner, the cities were nearly all independent to the same extent.

The liabilities of the nobles were as follows: they were liable to extra contributions to the King, the Emperor of Austria; they could be called out, at the summons of the king, to do military duty at their own expense. These were no light burdens, and in times when wars were frequent they were quite oppressive. For instance, in 1809, the nobles, to the number of 17,000 cavalry and 22,000 infantry, were called out by the emperor, and a war-tax laid upon them of about $7,500,000. The last great levy was made in the time of Napoleon, when he was threatening Vienna. The entire expenses of a campaign were required to be paid by the nobles; but if they were called to march out of Hungary, it was at the expense of the king.

There is still another class in Hungary, the *Magnaten*, Magnates, or Lords. They come under the head nobles, but form now an unimportant part of the nation, and are not to be confused at all, says Mr. Brace, with the large class of the privileged freemen. They are the wealthy landholders of the country, answering pretty nearly to what are called in this country the Codfish Aristocracy, or Upper Ten Thousand. Of immense wealth, they have always looked down with contempt upon the great mass of the people, and have squandered their fortunes at the Court of Vienna, or in Paris. They took no part in the revolution, and never cared anything for Hungary, except for the rents they could squeeze from their tenants, and the studs they could collect on their estates. They have ever been a race of proud, indolent, heartless drones, hanging like a mill-stone about the neck of the nation, and wishing for nothing so much as the perpetuity of the oppressive feudal system. They were always, and are now, thoroughly despised and hated by the people. At Vienna, before the revolution, their immense wealth alone gained them respect; but now, when everything Hungarian meets with "the cold shoulder" at Vienna, these proud unprincipled magnates find no favor there, and come back to Hungary only to find still less among a brave and intelligent people whom they exultingly saw perish under the Austrian or Russian sword. They were, during the revolution, the tories of Hungary. Should another revolution be successful in Hungary—and another will come—these renegade magnates will meet with their reward. Their treatment by the Austrian government, since the revolution, is not a little singular. Many of them even took an active part in favor of Austria during the revolution; but Austria now sneers at their loyalty; they and their estates are now intolerably taxed; *gens-d'armes* and spies watch them, and they fare no better than the "rebels," so called. By way of revenge they refuse all offices, and the majority of them now live in gloomy retirement on their estates. Some of them have completely changed their political views since the revolution, and come out in opposition to Austria; but they are not to be relied on. They would favor almost any other species of government sooner than republicanism.*

Lastly, under the old constitution, comes the *King*. The right to the crown of Hungary was hereditary in the house of Austria; and the chief prerogatives of the crown were—1st, the power of making laws, after consulting the estates assembled in the Diet, and in common with them; 2d, of assembling the Diet and dissolving it at pleasure; 3d, the highest executive authority in everything which was in accordance with the laws, and which involved no violation of them; 4th, the right of patronage, or the nomination to all bishoprics and other clerical dignities; 5th, the highest judicial authority, which the crown, however, only mediately exercised through its officers; 6th, the full power of declaring peace and war; 7th, the right of levying troops, of erecting fortresses, and of demanding warlike subsidies; 8th, the right of calling a general rising of the country for its defence, in a prescribed legal manner; 9th, the right of pardoning; 10th, the right of coining money; 11th, of granting Patents; 12th, of nominating to all offices, except those of Palatine of Hungary, of the two guardians of the crown, and of the minor county officers; 13th, of legitimizing bastards; 14th, of transferring the right of succession to a daughter, on the extinction of male heirs; 15th, the inheritance of all noblemen's estates, where there are no male heirs; 16th, the right of abrogating decrees of infancy pronounced by the courts of justice; 17th, of granting letters of prosecution; 18th, the supreme guardianship of orphans; 19th, the post; 20th, the right of sending special commissions to inquire into the faulty administration of the counties, by which the authority of the lord-lieutenant of the same was suspended. The royal commissioner sent could abrogate resolutions of the county meetings, in the king's name; suspend county officers, and institute legal proceedings against them. The royal authority further extended to the disposition of the domestic fund of each county.

Such were the prerogatives of the King of Hungary, as deduced from the Hungarian Constitution, and drawn up for the use of the Emperor's cabinet in 1831, by Baron De Baldacci. They were what

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* *Brace's Hungary, p. 81, et passim.*

Austria claimed. It will be seen that many of them gave the emperor great latitude. The king claimed the right of levying custom duties at will, and accordingly surounded the country with a barrier of protecting duties. The internal management of the cities was wholly dependent on the government, which had the power of appointing and removing their officers.

The whole of Hungary was divided into comitats or counties, answering to our states, a division made by King Stephen about the year 1000. Each county was governed by a lord-lieutenant, appointed by the king. There were also two deputy-lieutenants, who presided over all county meetings, held the supreme direction of the connty police, and presided as chief judges in the county courts. The lord lieutenant was the only officer of a county appointed by the king; all others were chosen by the nobles or freemen. Each county and each free city sent deputies to the National Legislature or Diet. The deputies went to the Diet under strict instructions, without any will of their own, being bound to adhere to that of their constituents, to whom they applied for directions on all doubtful and difficult questions. They were also liable to recall at any time, for neglect of instructions.*

Since the year 1562, the Hungarian Diet was divided into two chambers. Before that time the members all assembled in one body. After the division the upper chamber, called the Chamber of Magnates, consisted of—1st, the prelates, with the Archbishop of Gran at their head, as primate; 2d, the "barones et comites regni," or peers of the realm, in two classes; 3d, the great officers of the crown, with the lords-lieutenant of the 52 counties into which the whole country was divided; and 4th, the barons, summoned by letters royal, including every prince, count and baron of 25 years of age. The Palatine of Hungary presided over the Chamber of Magnates.

The lower chamber consisted of the deputies from the counties and towns, and an officer appointed by the crown presided over it. The first business of the Diet was to consider the propositions of the crown. The lower house could also originate propositions. The upper house could only approve or veto.

The Palatine was a viceroy, or representative of the King of Hungary, the Emperor of Austria. He resided at Buda. The Grand Chancery of Hungary had its seat at Vienna, where all government business was transacted.

To give a better idea of the internal government of Hungary, let us take a single comitat or state, for the Hungarian comitat answered to our division of state. Each state had its own provincial administration. It carried the doctrine of state rights far beyond anything known in this country. It was much more a "sovereign state" than any of ours; for it could treat with foreign powers. A Hungarian state could disapprove the acts of the Central Government, and by means of its state legislature send them back *vetoed.* As stated before, it could at any moment recall a deputy from the Diet, for violating instructions; and moreover it could reject all orders or sentences, both from Hungarian or Austrian courts, from the lord chancellor of the kingdom, from the home office, or from the Emperor of Austria himself, if it found them inconsistent with the laws of the land.* Such powers held by a state are altogether without parallel. The veriest stickler in this country for state rights never dreamed of such as these. Even nullification itself is thrown completely in the shade. In a state of Hungary, nullification was a practical every-day affair—not a mere man of straw—a mere thing on paper.

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* Paget's Hungary, vol. 1, pp. 399–412.

Each state had its state legislature, composed of all the voters of the state. They met in assembly four times a year. The governor of the state, who was appointed for life by the crown, was *ex-officio* president of the legislature, and the only person who could summon the legislature.

The influence of the crown, over even the most minute affairs of the internal government of Hungary, must have been very considerable; for, besides each of the 52 states of Hungary having a governor appointed for life by the Emperor of Austria, the governor had the power of approval of all candidates for state offices; that is, out of a certain number of candidates presented by the voters, as suitable to fill the office, the governor selected three, one of whom must be chosen. The governor had the control of all the courts and police; he also held courts of his own, both civil and criminal. The execution of the acts of the legislature, as well as the orders from the state department, or home office, when approved by the legislature, was entrusted to him. All communications between the state and its deputies passed through him. He had the care of the proper division of the taxes, and the control of various charitable matters, as, for instance, of the interests of orphans; and it was his duty to summon all voters of the state, every three years, to the election of state officers. With all these powers, and holding his position independent of the people, the governors were still not allowed by the people to deviate much from the popular wish. Elections were always more or less turbulent, and the governors were often compelled to adopt measures, in a summary manner by the people, which the laws did not sanction. Popular violence was almost sure to follow any attempt of a governor to force upon the people an unpopular candidate. If we may credit the accounts of Mr. Brace, royal governors have been summarily thrown out of their windows headlong by the mob, for attempting to impose unpopular candidates on the people, or showing an improper favoritism.

The state legislature controlled all the domestic taxes, fixed the rate for each parish, and drew up the lists and classifications of the contributions to government. It regulated the schools, prisons, watched over the police, and could demand an account of all the officials, and order force to be used against such of them as resisted the sentences of courts. It settled differences between landlord and peasant, fixed the prices of bread and meat, ordered the levies of soldiers, and sat in judgment on all cases affecting its own dignity. It chose the members for the National Assembly, or Diet, instructed and recalled them. It discussed, and could reject, all obnoxious acts of the Diet. All communications of the state to other states, or to the general government, were made in this body. The legislature of a state was in fact virtually independent of the Diet, for it could annul its acts. Questions, too, discussed in the Diet, but left undecided, were often taken up by the state legislatures, decided, and carried into effect; and often an extra session was called to do this, the decision to stand until the next regular session.

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 252.

Every third year the great state election was held, at which every officer, except the governor, was to be chosen. If we may believe the accounts of Paget, Brace, and other writers on Hungary, these triennial elections were extremely exciting and tumultuous, being accompanied by all the drinking, processions, noise, chairing, stump-speeches, political spouting, cudgels, broken heads, etc., of our American and British elections. Lives were sometimes lost. At the election the governor or his deputy presided, with his approving power. The choice was made by acclamation, except in a case where the contest ran high, when it was decided by ballot.

The subdivisions of the states were into districts, and again into parishes of districts, of which there were from four to six in each state. At the head of each district were the district judge and a board of selectmen. These divided the taxes among the single parishes, attended to the public health and safety, to the condition of roads and bridges, and to the quartering of soldiers. They formed a court for certain minor offences, and no state court could be held without their presence. The orders of the legislature and of the home office passed through them to the parish magistrates. Each parish, too, had its separate local government, as well as the district and state. It consisted of the village judge, an assistant judge, the selectmen, and clerk, all chosen by the villagers and freeholders of the parish. In their elections the lords of the manor decided what three were to be candidates for any office in the parish; but if the lords disagreed about them, the district judge decided. Many of the parishes were entirely free from the interference of the lords of the manor. In the parishes the selectmen and judges had the management of the minutest details of the government of the parish, all their acts being subject to investigation by state officers. The village judges were peasants, and liable to feudal labor, except during the term of their office. As the officers of the districts divided the taxes among the several parishes, so the officers of the parishes divided the taxes among the several individuals of the parish, and sent in their lists to the collectors. They levied the conscripts for the army, regulated the local police, executed the orders of the district judge and of the legislature, provided for the poor, and inspected the condition of the roads and bridges. They were also obliged to send in to the lord of the manor, for his approval, an estimate of the probable expenses of the coming year. If he neglected to examine it, it was examined at his expense by state officers of investigation.

Such is a brief sketch of the internal government of Hungary before the late revolution, as derived from Mr. C. L. Brace's "Hungary in 1851," and from other authorities. It will be seen, that it was a strange mixture of serfdom, democracy, aristocracy and monarchy, all forming so many discordant elements. The system was entirely too complicated for the general good, it being difficult often to attain the ends of justice, through the long course it was necessary to pursue. The central government was powerless, from the vetoing power of the state legislatures, and, in consequence, many measures of general good could never be carried out.

Mr. Brace thinks that the government was too democratic. On the contrary, it was too aristocratic. The aristocracy—the nobles—were the real rulers, and only adopted democratic forms to increase the more their power against the king. It was a constant struggle between king and noble. By democracy, we understand a government of the people; but, what kind of a democracy could that have been in Hungary before 1848, where, in a population of fourteen millions, there were only four hundred and fifty-five-thousand voters, and these nobles, to whom the great mass were obliged, for no equivalent whatever, to pay feudal service?

The greatest blot on the constitution of Hungary was, its maintenance of the feudal system in all its perfection, as established in the middle ages. This system, however, it is due to Hungary to say, owed its continuance more to the grasping ambition of Austria than to the Hungarians. The latter had long been opposed to the system; but the fear of Austria kept them from making such a radical change in the constitution as the abolition of serfdom would require, for Austria would make that a pretext for a rupture. The Hungarians had long since been divided into two great parties, the *Conservatives* and the *Radicals*. The former were for maintaining the old constitution entire—1st, Because they feared that any change in it would be made a pretext, on the part of Austria, for wresting from Hungary its entire constitution: 2d, From the immense sacrifice of property that the abolition of the feudal system would require. The total amount of property invested in feudal labor in Hungary was estimated at from 90 to $100,000,000, all of which would be sacrificed at once by abolishing the system: 3d, Many large estates were pawned for years to come on the feudal labor belonging to them; contracts had been entered into, loans made, and large sums borrowed, all based on the certainty of the continuance of feudal labor. The abolition of the system would ruin thousands—and all for a *sentiment*, the Conservatives added.

The *Radicals*, on the other hand, at the head of whom were Kossuth, Deak, and Batthyanyi, argued, that their party would suffer by the change quite as much as the Conservatives, since they too were living on feudal labor, and would share equally in the loss of the $100,000,000 of capital vested in feudal service.

For many years the question agitated the country. The platform of the Radicals was:—

1st. Full equality before the law.

2d. An entire abolition of feudal privileges and feudal exactions from the peasants.

3d. A more general distribution of the right of suffrage.

But little progress was made for a long time on the subject. A great effort was made in 1832–36, which failed, however, in its main object, that of doing away with the feudal service altogether, but which succeeded in alleviating somewhat the oppressed condition of the serf. The official account of the changes made are given by Mr. Brace, but are too lengthy for our pages. The substance of them is, that the serf was relieved from a portion of the exactions of the noble, and better secured against much unjust and tyrannical treatment. The serf was also allowed to hold his land on an unlimited lease. The peasant was, in effect, made the owner of his land, or if not, at least the occupier for ever, upon certain conditions. The landlord could not deprive him of it; and the land, or, more strictly, the right of occupation could be transmitted to his children. The serf, however, was not relieved from forced labor.

The contest for effecting the abolition of the feudal system entirely was continued, and the enthusiasm of the Radicals gained new force from the stirring events that agitated other parts of Europe. At length, in 1848, the overwhelming power of Kossuth's eloquence, together with the general efforts of his party, carried everything before them. The feudal system was swept away entirely, and that too by the votes of large numbers, who thus voluntarily sacrificed all they possessed. The nobles, with no force to compel them, abolished at a blow the serfdom of millions of peasants, and sacrificed property to the value of at least $100,000,000. At the same time the right of suffrage was extended, and every man, under a few appropriate conditions, was allowed to vote for all officers.

Never before were the people of Hungary so happy as at the time of this great reform; but they were not suffered to enjoy it. The war with Austria followed, and all know the result. The whole nation were trampled down by the aid of Russia, a power ever ready to block the wheels of freedom. Austria alone would have been powerless; and even with Russia to aid her, she could have done but little towards crushing the liberty of Hungary, if the Hungarians themselves had been united. Here was the grand difficulty. There was division in the ranks of the Hungarians themselves. Kossuth, though a great and good man, was not the man for the hour. He was great in the cabinet, but he was no general. He was too good a man for the work that it was necessary to perform. He lacked sternness and decision, at that time so much needed. He needed the just severity and military ability of a Washington, the sternness of a Cromwell, and the decision, bravery, and determination of a Jackson. He could plan, but he could not fight; he could convict, but he could not sign a death-warrant. He could see the foul treachery of Görgey, but he had not the decision to bring him to justice.

If he had ordered his execution the moment his treachery was discovered, he might have saved his country. Still, with all these defects, the purity of his motives is admitted, even now, by all in Hungary. No one there casts a slur on the stainless honor of his political course.* He has endeared himself to all in Hungary. The people idolize him. It was he who, by his devotion to freedom, and by his eloquence, obtained the reforms of 1835 and of 1848. The name of Kossuth is sacred to every Hungarian. The poorest peasant in Hungary venerates his name; for the eloquence with which he advocated their liberation from serfdom, still rings in their ears. They everywhere speak of him with raptures, and are confident that the day is not distant when he will return to liberate their country.

There is no man upon the face of the earth that Austria so much dreads as Louis Kossuth. "Even now, with Austrian soldiers in every village," says Mr. Brace, "without arms or means, despoiled of its best and bravest, the land needs but his voice to start it again into a whirlwind of revolution." Soldiers are flogged in the Austrian army for barely mentioning his name.

The condition of Hungary since the revolution may be briefly stated. The whole country is treated as a conquered province. The entire old government of Hungary was swept away at a blow—diet, states, districts, parishes and all,—and every city, town and village filled with Austrian soldiers. The judges were dismissed, and foreign soldiers put in their place. Commissioners of the crown were substituted for district judges. Every officer in the land was turned out, and a foreigner—a Bohemian or Austrian—put in his place. The Austrian police system is everywhere established. The poor people of the villages, who formerly managed their own affairs, and elected their own rulers, now are everywhere subjected to military authority. Let one imagine all the officers of Louisiana, from the governor down to the constables and watchmen, turned out of office by a foreign power, and foreign soldiers put in their stead, aided by a swarm of foreign police, and he will have a tolerable idea of the present internal government of Hungary. The system of passports or permits is also introduced, and no one can pass without them. No one is allowed to have a gun or other weapon, except by getting out a special permit. The people of Hungary were all disarmed, and forbidden to have arms; but it is supposed that large quantities of arms have been buried, or otherwise concealed in the country, in anticipation of another revolution. No man is allowed to speak against the government, and Austrians are stationed in every quarter. One cannot enter a public-house or walk the streets without being watched. The Hungarian costume is forbidden, and it is a crime to exhibit the Hungarian flag.

The Austrian postal system is introduced, and all letters directed to suspected persons are opened by the government officials.

By such means as these has the Austrian government attempted to blot out the recollection of what Hungary formerly was; but these sad changes only tend to strengthen the recollections of the Hungarians and to embitter them the more against the government. Thousands of them would emigrate to America if they could get out of the country; but passports would not be given them to leave it.

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 47.

The next aim of the Austrian government, since the revolution, has been to extract from the Hungarians as large a revenue as possible. The war cost Austria about $60,000,000, and the entire debt of Austria is $400,000,000. The Austrians are now endeavoring to liquidate by imposing a heavy taxation on the Hungarians, a thing to which they were never accustomed. They never paid over $6,000,000 of direct taxation, a sum not very large for 15,000,000 of people. Austria commenced by monopolizing the trade in tobacco. Those who wish to raise tobacco must first get a permit from government. When the crop is about half grown government commissioners visit the field and estimate the crop. At harvest time they visit again, and take the amount of the tobacco. If it falls short of the amount of the first estimate, the poor peasant must pay the difference. But the tobacco raised is not the farmer's. It belongs to the government. He is required to carry the whole crop to the government warehouses, where he is obliged to receive what the government chooses to give him. For a lot of tobacco worth $20 the government gives from $3.50 to $6. If one wishes to buy the same lot of the government, he can have it for $35! This is a case cited by Mr. Brace. "I heard instances of government taxation," says he, "even worse than this, where the dead loss to the planter would approach 90 per cent." This is absolutely stealing; and yet this is a fair specimen of Austrian government civilization. Such plundering would disgrace Turkey, or even Mexico. Of course there is no inducement for the Hungarians to raise tobacco, and its culture is nearly abandoned.

The most singular thing of all in this, is the idea of raising a revenue by imposing a heavy duty on, or by monopolizing, the products of the soil—just as though the Hungarians or any other people would raise a crop of any thing which they knew the government would seize, at one-fourth its value, the moment it was harvested! This is another specimen of Austrian stupidity.

The next article taxed is wine, which pays a tax of from 50 to 75 per cent. Of course the making of wine is greatly diminished. Besides, the vineyard is taxed 5 per cent. of the value of the land.

Next, every house and garden pays a tax, and the whole male population pay a poll-tax of $1 50 each. Such things were unknown under the Hungarian government. The result of the conquest of the country is, that, although the feudal system has no existence, the people are more oppressed than ever, as they have now no political rights whatever. They have the expenses to bear of a foreign government, more expensive than that of Hungary ever was; they are disarmed, and cannot shoot a crow in their corn-fields without a permit from government. If they wish to write they can only use stamped paper, for which they must pay the government price.

They cannot visit one another without a pass. They cannot send a letter through the mail without its being liable to be opened by the police. They cannot converse in company without being watched by an Austrian official. There is no liberty of speech, even in the pulpit, for the police are everywhere, and even dictate themes to the clergy—in short, they live under a most arbitrary, unjust and annoying military despotism. "Where now are the rights," say the Hungarian peasant, "which I had under Kossuth? Where are our elections, our officers, our judges? I could vote then. I could be chosen for an office. I could speak and act then as I chose. Where now is all this? Now I have *gens-d'armes* all the while watching me; I cannot stir without permission. I have nothing whatever to do in the government. Besides, I must pay taxes for every thing I eat, and drink, and own. Where is our freedom?"

Such is the degraded condition of Hungary in 1852. How long it will last is a matter of conjecture; but one thing is certain, Hungary is now less favorably disposed towards Austria than ever; and she never can be reconciled to her condition. Before the revolution there was a considerable party in the country who opposed the attempt to establish its independence. They joined the Austrians, and waged a cruel war upon the Magyars. The Austrians had deceived them, by representing to them that the intentions of the Magyars towards them were not good. They now see how shamefully they were deceived, and that the Magyars were their true friends. They are now as bitter against the Austrians as ever the Magyars were. Those Croats, Sclavonians, and Wallachs, who, in the war with the Austrians, sided with the latter, and greatly checked and hampered the operations of the Hungarian patriots, would now, if the war were to break out again, join heart and hand with the latter.

In the last struggle, the forces of the Hungarian patriots were necessarily divided. In the south of the country they had to repel the Croats and Raizen, who kept up a guerrilla war through the agency of Austrian emissaries; in the north, the Wallachs waged a cruel peasant war from the same cause. To keep these all quiet the patriots had to maintain a divided force, that would have been sufficient to have kept the whole Russian army at bay.

Then there was the old Conservative party, and the whole body of Magnates, resisting the patriot movements and favoring the enemy. But these, too, would not now act the same part. The oppressions of the Austrians since the revolution has taught them who were their real friends. They now hate the Austrians, and favor the cause of the Magyars. They, too, would not be indifferent, or favor the Austrian cause in another struggle. "I do not hesitate to say," says Mr. Brace, "after careful observation and intercourse with every class of society, that a well-supported movement would carry with it every class, and race, and party, upon the Hungarian soil."*

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 401.

The Austrians conquered by taking advantage of the divisions among the Hungarians; by widening these divisions through their emissaries; and lastly, by calling in an army of 90,000 Russians to attack the divided Hungarian forces. But let now another war break out, and Hungary would stand a good chance of success. She can raise in a few days an army of 300,000 vigorous men; and besides, there are 150,000 Hungarians in the present Austrian army, who need but the word of Kossuth to make them march over into the Hungarian ranks. We say, the word of Kossuth, for there can be no doubt of the wonderful and universal attachment of almost every man in Hungary to him. His name is upon the lips of all, and the very places where he stood in their towns, while pouring forth his stirring eloquence, are venerated. If Kossuth were to appear among them now, a universal and simultaneous rising of the whole population would be the consequence. But Kossuth will wait till the favorable moment. All the Hungarians now need are arms, and arms they will have; and when Hungary once more rises—may the day be not far distant—the world will witness a struggle such as she never witnessed before. "A nation of strong men," says Mr. Brace, "embittered and maddened by years of insult, and oppression, and degradation, will then be fighting as if in despair. There will be fighting as if there was no hope, and no escape—mercy will not be thought of. I know the people, and I am sure that there is hardly a man on the Hungarian plain, from the clergyman of the village to the lowest peasant of the prairie, who will not grasp scythe or sword for this last contest. It will be the final effort—the last struggle of a nation for life." The struggle would be sublime and glorious, let its termination be what it might.

The subject of foreign aid to Hungary has been the theme of much discussion in this country since the arrival of Kossuth. That great man has been ridiculed by some, and abused by others, for asking for aid from this country to prepare the way for another struggle for Hungarian independence. For ourselves, we must and will speak out plainly on this subject. Kossuth, a poor, oppressed and exiled patriot, driven from his country, now conquered and groaning under the most cruel oppression of the Austrian government, lands upon our shore and asks us for aid. For this he has been ridiculed and abused by many calling themselves republicans. Now, what is there more natural than for the exiled Hungarian patriots to call upon other nations, favorable to liberty, for aid?—for aid in any form—material, immaterial, private or public? Certainly, there was no impropriety in so doing—not even in calling for public aid—and we of all nations should be the last to denounce Kossuth, even for asking for public aid, since we once did the same ourselves, and received such aid. France, be it said to her honor, did not turn the "cold shoulder" upon us when we asked for aid—did not denounce our agents as "humbugs," as Kossuth has been denounced. She nobly lent us material aid; and Kossuth knowing this, very naturally supposed that he would find aid in America; and the more so, because of the sympathy we had already manifested, as a nation, for the Hungarian cause.

We are far from maintaining that our government should have lent Hungary material aid, thus throwing ourselves into a foreign war with Austria. It was merely a question of expediency, and Kossuth himself did not view it in any other light. But we do maintain, that Kossuth should have been differently treated; and that our government should have drawn up, and formally promulgated to Austria, Russia, and to the world, a powerful and indignant PROTEST against the subjugation and cruel treatment of Hungary. This course the honor of our country required. This course was the only one that would have been consistent with the public sympathy that we, as a nation, had already shown for Hungary—the only one that was consistent with our national character, our Constitution, and the spirit of our laws and government—the only one, too, that would be at all consistent with our own past conduct in the hour of need, poverty, oppression and distress; for we, be it remembered, were once the humble petitioners at the doors of a foreign nation for sympathy, support and "material aid."

As it was, the whole conduct of our government respecting Hungary bears upon its face an appearance of insincerity; or, if not that, of a want of a proper sense of the dignity and importance of our national character, and of the sacredness of our liberties and political principles; of a disposition to suffer mere considerations of pure selfishness to govern our national conduct; of a disposition to cringe to foreign powers, and to treat the basest principles of government, and the basest acts of tyranny and oppression with *politeness;* of a fear, a mean, cowardly fear, of giving offence to the base, corrupt and inhuman despots of Austria and Russia; of an utter want of that open, manly, frank, fearless and republican character, that ought at all times to be manifest in the acts of our government, ennobling it to proclaim nobly to the world at all times the sacred principles of republican government and the rights of all men, whether in Hungary or America.

We profess to be free and independent; but is it true, or not, that our government dares not to proclaim fearlessly to the world its democratic principles, and to denounce, by public protest, the tyrannies and cruelties that are practised by other nations? One would think so, from the caution manifested by our government in respect to Kossuth and to Hungary.

The whole course of conduct of the United States towards Kossuth and Hungary has been about this: professing a deep sympathy for Hungary, our government invited Kossuth in exile to our shores, and even sent a national vessel to convey him hither. The distinguished Hungarian, of course, anticipated a most enthusiastic reception by the United States government. So far as the people were concerned, he was not disappointed. They received him in a noble manner, and gave him a hearty welcome to our shores; but not so with the government. Here he met with a coolness that was a stranger to all Hungarian ideas of hospitality. Kossuth had observed the same cold hospitality in the British government; but it did not surprise him there, for in England he breathed the air of monarchy. It was, however, with real surprise, that he found the same coldness at Washington, the very focus of republicanism. Here he looked for a most cordial and genuine republican reception; but all was as cold as monarchy, even to the republican Governor of Hungary, who came, by express invitation, a guest to our shores. He was quietly told: "Governor Kossuth, we are very glad to see you; we sympathize deeply with you for Hungary; we acknowledge the justness, and the nobleness of your principles; we are fully sensible of the extent of your wrongs, and we would be glad to see them removed; but we are sorry, very sorry to tell you, that we can do nothing for you; we acknowledge that you have been robbed of your country, and of your natural rights, and exiled from the land of your birth—that you are our brother in the sacred cause of liberty. . But still, we can do nothing for you. Material aid is entirely out of the question; and as for a further demonstration of our sympathy, it will not do. We would offend Austria and Russia if we were to speak louder than we have; and Austria, you know, is a great and powerful nation."

Kossuth.—And do the Americans think more of offending such an oppressive and tyrannical government as Austria, than of maintaining and diffusing their noble political principles? Are they afraid to speak, and to denounce the tyrants of the earth? If so, then have they degenerated since the glorious days of Washington.

Government.—No, no, Governor; you do not understand us; we are not *afraid* to speak out; but then it will not do; it is bad policy. There would be nothing gained by it, and the powers that be must always be respected.

Kossuth.—Ah! I see. You are afraid of offending the Austrian government, the bitterest enemy on earth to republicanism. You care less about diffusing republican principles than of the immediate benefits resulting from them. I did not know before that republicanism was so selfish. I did not believe before that America, the boasted land of freedom, could ever be made to conciliate tyrants, by suffering herself to be silent when she saw them trampling under foot the most sacred rights of man, and all of those principles the dearest to every genuine republican.

If such a dialogue as the above never actually occurred, it certainly was all thought.

Kossuth has now left our shores, probably with a favorable opinion of our people in general, whatever he may think of the foreign policy of our government. It certainly is too selfish and illiberal. We do not say, that we should promulgate republican principles, with the sword, as Mohammed did the religion of the Koran; but we do say, that standing as we do before the world, the great model of true republicanism, and perfectly independent of every nation on earth, and of all of them combined, we ought to throw aside all reserve regarding the tyrannies of other powers; we ought to denounce them loudly, and to show them no favor or respect so long as they continue to pursue the work of trampling on the rights of men. The advocates of monarchy and despotism do not hesitate to treat our republican principles with open contempt. Why, then, should we be so circumspect—so afraid of offending despotic powers?

We shall close this paper with some statistics regarding the present population—religions, education, trade, internal improvements, manufactures, and the mineral and agricultural products of Hungary—which we derive principally from the work of Mr. Brace.

Population.—The latest statistics on this subject are those of Dr. Schutle, for 1850. They are as follows:

Magyars,	5,278,665
Slovacks, about	2,000,000
Croats, "	1,000,000
Rutheven,	600,000
Raizen and Schokazen,	1,400,000
Wallachs,	2,908,876
Germans,	1,377,484
Jews and smaller tribes, about	400,000

Chonawez, a writer for the Austrian government, makes the whole population 12,990,158. According to Schutle, the Jewish population of Hungary has increased more than 500 per cent. during the last 65 years. The entire population of Hungary has increased, during the last ten years, only about 13 per cent.

Religion.—All religions are tolerated in Hungary, and have been so ever since the reign of Joseph II., who, by a decree, dissolved 600 monasteries, and endowed with their funds various universities and schools, at the same time granting toleration to all creeds; and this liberal policy has been maintained by his successors. According to the latest statistics, the different religious sects of Hungary are as follows:

Roman Catholics,	6,130,188
Greek Catholics,	1,322,344
Protestants (Lutherans, Calvinists, and Unitarians),	2,900,334
Greeks, not united,	2,283,505
Jews,	244,035

All the Croats are Roman Catholics. The Ruthevens are of the Greek Church. About two-thirds of the other lesser tribes, including the Wallachs, are of the Greek Church. Of the Maygars, about seven-twelfths are Protestants; of the Slovacks, three-eighths; and of the Germans, one-fifth.

The Roman Catholic Church is governed by three archbishops and fourteen bishops. These were all members of the Diet, and well provided for. The inferior clergy are poor. Under the old constitution, the Roman Catholics had the precedence, the Archbishop of Gran being primate of all Hungary; but the orthodox Greek Church was also represented in the Diet by one archbishop, nine bishops, and two abbots. The United Greeks were represented by four bishops. The Protestants had no representation. The late revolution swept away all representation, and reduced the country to a tributary province.

The Archbishop of Gran is now the head of the Roman Catholic Church in Hungary. The Catholic clergy in Hungary are perhaps the most richly endowed in the world. The Archbishop of Gran has an annual income, valued by Springer, a German writer, at $250,000. The revenues of the Bishop of Erlan are estimated at $30,000; and those of the Bishop of Agram at about $100,000 per annum. The collected incomes of the whole Roman Catholic clergy are valued at $1,620,000. That of the Greek Church is only about $300,000. The Jews have about 200 synagogues.

It is important to correct, in this connection, an opinion that has prevailed in America, that the Roman Catholics of Hungary favored the Austrian cause in the late revolutionary struggle. This is a great mistake. The Catholics of Hungary were among the truest Hungarian patriots, and fought side by side with the Protestants, and all for the independence of the country. Thousands of them perished, with all they had, for Hungary. Speaking of the city of Gros Wardein, Mr. Brace says:

> "Just within the town my companions pointed out to me a fine large park and handsome house, belonging to a Roman Catholic bishop, much beloved by the people, and now in an Austrian prison, in Arad, sentenced to imprisonment for 20 years. He was one of the truest Hungarian patriots, they said; and they were zealous Protestants themselves. It perhaps is not known, in America, how nobly many of the Catholic clergy sacrificed all for Hungary.
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> "The celebrated Catholic priest, Wimmer, who had won the confidence of the whole people by his self-denying efforts among the poor, in establishing schools and improving agriculture, organized, and commanded personally, a division of the National Guards. Many others proved their devotion to Hungary, by dying on the scaffolds or the gallows for their cause."*

Mr. Brace, who was seized as an American, while traveling in Hungary, in 1851, on mere suspicion, and cast into an Austrian dungeon, where he was confined 30 days, found there, among some 100 companions confined for political offences, many Catholic priests, besides Protestant clergymen and Jewish rabbis.† "The clergy in Hungary," says Mr. Brace, "have fared very badly at the hands of the Austrian government since the revolution. * * * Numbers of them have been hanged or shot, and these not of any one sect, but Catholic priests and bishops, as well as Protestant clergymen, deacons, and superintendents." Mr. Brace's authority, regarding the Catholics of Hungary, can hardly be doubted, as he is a warm Protestant.

The Protestant church in Hungary suffered violent persecutions until the close of the 18th century, when they acquired toleration; and what is most remarkable, through the efforts of the Catholics of

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* Brace's Hungary, p. 271.

† Justice and truth require us to state, that in the late Hungarian revolution the Jews took an active part with the Hungarian patriots, and fought bravely for the cause of liberty. Many of them are now dragging out their lives in Austrian dungeons.

Hungary themselves. Indeed, says Mr. Brace, "it should be remembered, that the attacks on the Protestants have scarcely ever come from their fellow-countrymen in Hungary. The two churches in Hungary have generally lived very amicably. The hostility is from Vienna."

Since the revolution the Protestants of Hungary have been deprived of their church government, it being deemed too republican in its character; but otherwise it remains the same. Its preachers are watched, as are all priests in Hungary, and they are not allowed to make the pulpit the medium of declamation against the Austrian government. The persecution comes entirely from Vienna, where the Austrian government has no religion. Austria cares nothing for any of the churches in Hungary, only so far as its despotic political views are concerned. It will tolerate anything that tolerates despotism.

Trade.—We have nothing later on this subject than 1847. The exports of that year to Austria amounted to $26,735,400; the imports from Austria, to $28,735,400. The exports to other countries, during the same year, amounted to $4,833,978; the imports from them, to $8,385,975. The exports from Hungary to Austria, in 1847, were the following articles:

Wool	$8,376,880	Oxen	$1,995,560
Hides	721,460	Hogs	1,969,430
Hemp	209,980	Sheep	336,163
Rags	160,107	Horses	254,125
Feathers	160,075	Useful Metals	1,601,074
Wheat	2,801,934	Tobacco	1,337,760
Oats	580,943		

The imports from Austria were—

Cotton goods	$9,723,000
Woolen "	3,684,695
Linen and hempen manufactures	2,004,253
Iron and steel wares	1,906,476
Yarn	1,707,333
Silk goods	1,422,300
Leather	511,207

The agricultural products of Hungary are the same as those of our northern states.

Railroads.—There are several lines, all in the possession of the government. That extending along the Danube, from Marchegg to Pesth and Szolnok, is 215 miles long, and cost about $10,506,106. Austria has made no improvements in Hungary since the revolution, except in the way of fortifications, the better to enslave the Hungarians. Some old prisons have been fitted up, and they are now filled with hundreds of poor Hungarian patriots, guilty of nothing but a love of liberty. May the day speedily come, when they may see their Austrian jailors and Austrian tyrants biting the dust!

Hungary is very deficient in roads. With an area of about 100,000 square miles, there are only about 2,000 miles of road in the whole country, and not more than three or four regular lines of stage-coaches. The country being level mostly, in wet weather the roads are nearly impassable. The country is admirably fitted for rail-roads, and under a good government it would have them, connecting its fertile plains with Turkey, the Adriatic, and with Germany. A good government would make Hungary one of the richest countries on the globe.

Mineral Products.—Hungary yields annually gold and silver to the amount of $1,037,173; of copper, $689,040; and of iron, $1,250,000. It also yields lead, cobalt, antimony, rock salt, alum, and coal, in large quantities; also potter's clay, porcelain, limestone, marble, chalk, gypsum, alabaster, asbestos, fuller's earth, and sulphur.

Of the precious stones, it affords the opal, ruby, topaz, amethyst, jasper, agate, etc.

Manufactures.—Of these, Hungary has those of pottery, earthenware, porcelain, iron-ware, paper, colors, cloth, refined sugar, and of beet-root sugar, champagne, candles, soap, soda, potash, saltpetre, machinery, &c., &c.; in all, about 500 manufacturing establishments.

Education.—Institutions for education are numerous in Hungary. The University at Pesth is one of the most richly endowed institutions in Europe. It is under the care of the government. Its utility, however, is by no means in proportion to its large revenues. There are three royal academies, at Presburg, Gros Wardein, and Kaschan; the Royal Mountain Academy, at Schemniz; the Economical Institute, at Altenburg; the Industrial School, united with a Geometrical Institute, at Pesth. There are several Lyceums, and 68 Gymnasia, entirely new formed. The Greek Catholics have a Gymnasium at Belényes. The Roman Catholics have five Normal Schools for teachers, at Pesth, Raab, Gros Wardein, and in two other towns. The United Greeks have one at Arad. There are also three Lutheran Protestant Colleges, and 15 Gymnasia, large and small; also four Reformed Protestant Colleges, and 11 Gymnasia.

The other institutions of education in Hungary are: 72 Seminaries for Greek and Roman Catholic Priests; 14 Educational Houses for the same; 10 Nunneries; two Seminaries for girls; 18 Music Schools; 20 Drawing Schools; two Deaf and Dumb Institutions; and two Institutions for the Blind. Ten Gymnasia have been closed.

So many institutions of learning, in a country like Hungary, with an area not greater than that of Wisconsin, or 100,000 square miles, speak well for the general intelligence of the people. Indeed, under so free and democratic a form of government as Hungary has had since the great reforms in 1835, the people of Hungary must necessarily be generally intelligent, and more or less educated, far beyond anything found either in France or England. The language of the schools is German, except in those parts where the majority of the scholars are Hungarian; but of their present actual condition Mr. Brace, the latest writer, gives us no information.

ART. II.—EMIGRATION:

ITS RESULTS, AND FUTURE POLICY.

THE advancement of population in the United States during the last decennial term, resulting in a great measure from increased immigration, is a theme for profitable reflection. The tide of emigration that has set so strongly to our shores continues to flow, and its waters grow more turbid and swollen each year. No legislative prohibition impedes its course, and it rushes fearfully onward, penetrating every bay and inlet of our coast, and rolling its heavy surges up to our wharves, it there discharges its ponderous burthen, in haste for the next sucession.

Hitherto we have required the assistance of all who have visited our shores. The vast accessions of uninhabited regions that have been rapidly gained, would long have been unprofitable without those living supplies which have freighted so heavily the emigrant vessels. Without these, our western wilds would still have remained savage, and the limits of our extension been greatly circumscribed. Without these, the broad belt of civilization that now links together two sister oceans would have proved abortive to this end. With them, our infant country, in the development of her resources, has grown powerful, and a diadem of stars has crowned her years.

To indicate the full measure of aid afforded by emigration, we must have recourse to figures, and for this purpose shall rely mainly on the returns of the different censuses. Commencing as far back as 1810, we find the number of foreigners arrived from that period to 1820, amounted to 114,000; from 1820 to 1830, there were 204,000; from 1830 to 1840, 778,500; from 1840 to 1850, 1,500,000, exhibiting a large ratio of increase during each decade. Comparing our population in 1840 (17,000,000) with the last enumeration in 1850, (23,000,000,) we discover an advance of 6,000,000, and the emigration for the intervening period being 1,500,000, *it* has furnished *one-fourth* of our increase in ten years.

To show the *distribution* of this foreign population, we shall note the ratio of increase; first, in some of the divisions of states; next, in a few of the states individually, and then in some of the cities. Assuming the density of population for our measure, we annex the following:

	Inhabs. sq. m., 1840.	Inhabs. sq. m., 1850.
New-England States	35.63	43.23
Middle States	43.32	57.10
Southern and Southwestern (Slave) States	11.50	14.00
Northwestern States	5.70	11.20

From which it will be seen that the middle and northwestern states exhibit the largest proportion of increase, the latter having nearly doubled, and these are precisely the divisions most visited by emigrants. Confining ourselves to these two divisions, then, we will examine some of the states individually.

	Inhabs. sq. m., 1840.	Inhabs. sq. m., 1850.
New-York	52.08	67.66
Pennsylvania	37.45	50.25
Maryland	50.23	62.31
Ohio	38.02	49.55
Iowa	0.84	3.77
Wisconsin	0.57	5.45

A relative advance, to be accounted for mainly by the immense number of foreigners that are there daily seeking settlements. We have seen it stated that, for the past year alone, *sixty thousand* emigrants have located in Iowa. But to magnify these results still more, we will observe now the increase of cities.

	Pop. in 1840.	Pop. in 1850.	Ratio of Increase.
Buffalo	18,212	42,261	132.03
Oswego	4,665	12,205	161.62
Pittsburgh	21,115	46,601	120.70
Alleghany	10,089	21,261	110.73
Cincinnati	46,338	125,000	169.80
Cleveland	6,071	17,034	180.57
St. Louis	16,469	80,000	385.70
Chicago, Illinois	4,470	29,963	570.31
Milwaukie, Wis.	1,712	20,061	1071.78

Here is exhibited a growth unequaled in the history of the world: cities springing into existence, Minerva-like, without any process of maturation. Were the cause of their sudden being unknown, the effect would seem magical; but there is exerted a power visible and more potent than the stroke of Vulcan.

Thus far we have shown the results of emigration by the increase of our population, the settlement of new regions, and the creation of large and populous cities. We will now examine it in a new aspect—*its moral influence on our institutions.* It is well known that a sudden transition from positive restriction to unbridled license is injurious to our constitution, moral and physical. Yet such is nearly the position of the newly-arrived emigrant. A short, a trifling interval elapses after his advent, and he becomes invested with all the rights of *our inheritance—our co-equal.* He undergoes a metamorphosis miraculous to himself. But how is he fitted for the change, for the discharge of his new duties, the exercise of his unwonted privileges? Has previous training prepared him for discretionary judgment? Will prudence characterize his acts? Will America's destiny be more secure, her dignity undiminished, her institutions unimpaired, by *his agency?* Before answering these, let us ascertain whence the emigrants come, their national characteristics, and the circumstances under which they have been reared.

During the year 1851, there arrived at New-York, from foreign ports, 289,601 emigrants. Of these 163,256, or nearly two-thirds, were Irish; 68,883, or one-fourth, Germans; 28,553 English, 7,302 French, and 6,064 Scotch. The proportion arriving at other ports remaining nearly the same, varying perhaps in favor of the Germans, evinces that the largest numbers are Irish and Germans.

In view of these facts, what should be our future policy in relation to this subject? Before making a reply, we will consider our present position. We are now possessed of an area of 3,000,000 square miles, with a population of 23,000,000 inhabitants, giving an average density of 7.22 inhabitants to the square mile; or, excluding the territories, 15.48. Compared with the population of other countries, the sparseness of our own seems very great, and would appear to indicate the need of every encouragement for settlement.

But, to recur to our query—how shall we regulate the admission of foreigners in future? Shall we place an interdict on those who are yet surcharging our ports, and say to them—"stay; we have no further relief for you?" Shall we close the portals of this happy "home of the brave and the free," and allow the oppressed and outcast of our race to linger in dungeons of despotic rule, or die amid fields of desolation and starvation? Shall we arrest the progress of our western states and diminish their speedy growth? No; we would do neither of these. But we would not *undo* what we have already nobly done. We would prize too highly our privileges, to be indifferent to anything that could endanger their perpetuity. Jealous affection for these should awaken our apprehension, lest we peril them by our *careless generosity*. We would still admit the stranger who knocks at our door, but we would so receive him and regulate his conduct, that he would be most benefited by his new position, and occasion no harm to others. We would have our naturalization laws modified, so that a subject of monarchy shall be only a *minor* of our republic, required to await maturity, before he can become one of the sovereigns of our land. Let the short term of apprenticeship now required for one of the noblest callings of life—the exercise of free privileges—be extended. Let us impose every safeguard around the ballot-box—"the palladium of our freedom," that it may be preserved untarnished, the sacred heritage of future generations. Let these or wiser provisions be enacted, and then may we *welcome* all who wish to come, and promise to them that stability they elsewhere crave. Then shall we have accelerated our country to that pinnacle of distinction and supremacy to which she is surely and rapidly attaining.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

ART. III.—THE ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC: THE HAWAIIAN CLUSTER.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS—INHABITANTS, CHARACTER AND NUMBER—THE SANDWICH ISLANDS—NATURAL RESOURCES AND PRODUCTIONS—TABLES OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS—CUSTOM-HOUSE RETURNS—EDUCATION, GOVERNMENT, ETC.

"Trade is the golden girdle of the globe."

THE United States, the last great power to appear upon the theatre of action, has become an arbiter in the affairs of the PACIFIC, and is preparing to enter the lists where Britain and Spain and France have for ages enjoyed the supremacy. It is but a natural sequence of the annexation of California and Oregon, and of that Mexican war, which, however brilliant in its results, caused Mr. Calhoun to declare in the Senate that the first act of the drama of American history was ended, the curtain had fallen, and everything beyond was uncertain and confused.

We are at last upon the Pacific. There are our ports and harbors —our ships, our people, and our merchandise; our civilization, our laws, our constitutions: with Russia, almost for a neighbor: with Chinamen, protesting against the acts of our governors; with Sandwich Islanders, claiming our protection! Surely Mr. Calhoun was right—old Rome is revived; but old Rome, thank God! without its paganism; we hope without its Cæsars (to come). Though uncertain, confused, why not glorious the future? Glorious in Christian power, in arts, in commerce, in liberty and in laws? We invoke this with true patriotic heart for our country.

It becomes us then to be informed about the Pacific—its isles and its continents, and we are determined that these subjects shall be presented fairly and liberally in our pages. The country has hardly yet recovered from the surprise of learning that the government of the Sandwich Islands, disgusted by the excesses of the French under Dillon, and their claims through Perrin, have proposed to our own government the establishment of a protectorate over them, or an unconditional annexation of their domain. Of these points there can be no doubt—but of the event who can speak? If Cuba be necessary as a key to the gulf and western valleys, why not these islands, with their admirable harbors, as half-way houses or houses of refuge for our whalemen—points of security in the voyages of our Californian and Oregonian marine?* Who will answer?

The Pacific Ocean, including its various archipelagoes, reaches in a direct line, on the equator, from the Island of Sumatra or the southern extremity of Malacca to the coast of South America near Quito—a distance of 175 degrees of longitude; or, at about the eighth parallel of north latitude, from the Gulf of Siam to the Bay of Panama, fully 180 degrees; or one-half the circumference of the earth. In breadth it extends from about 60° north to 50° south—a distance of 110 degrees, or near 8,000 miles. Its length in the latitude of Oregon is about 4,500 miles, and its southern length from Australia to Chili is about 6,000 miles—135 degrees of longitude. The water-surface of this vast basin is rather greater than the entire land-surface of the globe. But it is not one entire and unrelieved expanse of water. Scattered over the greater part of its extent,—principally the portion lying between the parallels of latitude 30° north and south, and west of the meridian 60° west from Washington,—are innumerable islands, solitary, or in clusters, rejoicing in all the luxuriance afforded by a rich soil and a delightful tropical climate.

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* The Polynesian thus strongly presses the advantages possessed in this respect by these islands:

"In view of these facts, and with the knowledge that goods can be entered here for reshipment, subject only to a transit duty of one per cent., the advantages of this port, as a depot for goods awaiting a market, must appear quite apparent. If the late decision of the Collector of San Francisco is carried into execution, we submit to consignees there, having cargoes upon their hands, whether it would not be a material saving of expense to send their ships here to discharge and store their goods, until a favorable moment arrives for effecting sales.

"We shall, without doubt, have a line of steamers running between the islands and the coast within a few months. By this expeditious mode of intercourse goods could be thrown into that market within a month or six weeks, and merchants there would always know the state of the demand, and the proper time to have them forwarded.

"In addition to the above facilities, vessels can get stone ballast, wood, and water, of the very best description, in any quantity, and so convenient, that casks can be filled in a lighter or ship's boat from the hose, as it comes from the iron pipes. This water is perfectly soft, being brought from a spring some hundreds of feet above the sea, without coming in contact with the ground.

"We are confident in the belief that Honolulu possesses all the advantages for a large commercial depot for the North Pacific, especially for California and Oregon, which will, ere long, be appreciated and employed, in preference to Valparaiso or any other port in this ocean; and where assorted cargoes for those points, and for the more northern possessions of the Russians, can be made up at the very shortest notice."

Omitting the large island of Australia or New-Holland, which may itself be reckoned a continent, these islands may be thus generally classified: 1. *Malasia*, or the Indian Archipelago, comprising Sumatra, Java, Borneo, the Philippine Islands, and the Moluccas, or Spice Islands. 2. *The Isles of Japan.* 3. The *Aleutian* chain, or the Fox Islands, extending across the North Pacific from Alashka to Kamschatka. 4. And the remainder, comprised under the appellation of *Polynesia.* This latter division consists of the following principal groups: the Ladrone, or Marianne Isles; the Caroline Isles; the Central Archipelago, and the Sandwich Islands, north of the equator, and the Papuan Islands—embracing New Guinea, New Britain, Solomon's Archipelago, New Hebrides, and other adjacent islands, the Friendly Islands—including the Fidji and Navigators', the Washington and Marquessas, the Society Islands, and New Zealand, south of the equator. It embraces a vast area, extending over about one hundred degrees of longitude and sixty to eighty degrees of latitude. Except New Zealand and a few isolated rocks, these islands all lie within the tropics, yet they enjoy a most mild and equable temperature, being constantly fanned by the breezes and moistened by the pluvial distillations of the Pacific.

The Indian Archipelago embraces about 800,000 square miles; the Isles of Japan about 80,000 square miles, and Polynesia upwards of 200,000—New Zealand occupying of this amount 62,000, the Papuan Isles 125,000, and the Sandwich Islands 7,000. The other groups consist for the most part of small islands, Tacanova, the largest of the Fidji, containing about 1,500 square miles, and Tahiti, the first of the Society Islands, only about 600.

The maritime enterprise of the age which first made America known to the civilized world also brought to light some of these gems of the ocean. Magellan, in 1518, having passed through the strait to which his name has been given, traversed the South Pacific to the west and north, touching at the Ladrones and the Philippines. Mendana, towards the close of the 16th century, discovered the Solomon Islands and the Marquessas. Various other navigators of all maritime nations, during 200 years subsequent, sailed through these seas in their route to and from the Indies, and made casual discoveries; but it is to the English explorers of the latter part of the last century that we are principally indebted for information concerning this interesting region. Wallis discovered the beautiful and lovely Otaheite; and Cook, having between the years 1767–'79 thrice circumnavigated the globe and pretty fully explored the waters of the Pacific, adding greatly to our stores of knowledge concerning the natives of the islands, fell a victim, in the last-mentioned year, to his zeal in the cause of Polynesian discovery;—having been killed the 14th of February, on the Island of Hawaii (Owhyhee)—one of the groups entirely discovered by himself, and by him called the Sandwich Islands. During the past half century American shipping has been gradually taking the commercial rule in the Pacific, and our sails there, whalers and merchantmen, now far outnumber those of any other nation; while valuable geographical, ethnographical, and scientific additions have been made to Polynesian literature by the National Exploring Expedition under Lieut. Wilkes.

This entire region of the earth appears to be the result of igneous agency. Plutonic power might here have been displayed, disputing Neptune's sway, and giving birth to many a fair isle, many a bright spot of earth, fit abode for nymph or goddess. The Island of Tahiti is one lofty basaltic mountain, rising near 10,000 feet above the sea. The other Society Islands, with the Marquesas, are of the same general nature. Tofua, on one of the Friendly Islands, 3,000 feet in height, is probably an incessant volcano,—having been in activity whenever it was visited. An active volcano exists on the island Ahrym, one of the New Hebrides. The largest of the Gambier group is elevated upwards of 1,200 feet above the sea, and is evidently an extinct volcano. In the Sandwich Islands are several volcanoes, both active and extinct. Hawaii, the largest, has two peaks, Mauna Loa and Mauna Kea, which rise each about 14,000 feet in height. In the flank of Mauna Loa occurs the volcanic crater Kilauea, three thousand feet above the level of the sea, and the largest in the world. The circumference of the crater at the top is 24 miles, with a depth of 1,200 feet to the surface of the burning lake within, which, two miles in length by one in breadth, is in a constant state of ebullition. An eruption took place last spring, when a large stream of lava flowed down the mountain, reaching to within seven miles of Hilo, on Byron's Bay, which is about forty miles distant from the crater.

A remarkable feature in the geology of this region of the earth, peculiar thereto, exists in its numerous islands and reefs of the coral formation. Many of the low islands present this formation in their entire surface, and to a considerable depth below the water level; whilst a number of the most elevated mountainous islands are partially encircled by coral reefs. It was long supposed that this production of the enterprising and indefatigable coral insect had its foundation in the unknown and unfathomable depths of the ocean; and surmises have even been made that this industrious race are widely engaged throughout the whole of Polynesia in their silent labors, and they were some day to startle the old world by the sudden completion of a new, vast continent. Without any disparagement whatever of the industry of the insect builder, it may well be doubted whether their labors begin at any very great depth below the water surface—whether they be not, indeed, quite superficial. Capt. King, a navigator of the same era with Capt. Cook, thus speaks of Elizabeth's Island, under the Tropic of Capricorn, near to Pitcairn's:

> "We found that this island differed essentially from all others in its vicinity, and belonged to a peculiar formation. . . . . The island is five miles in length, and one in breadth, and has a flat surface nearly eighty feet above the sea. On all sides except the north, it is bounded by perpendicular cliffs, about fifty feet high, composed entirely of dead coral, more or less porous, honey-combed at the surface, and hardening into a compact calcareous substance within, possessing the fracture of secondary limestone, and with a species of millepore interspersed through it. The dead coral, of which the higher part of the island is composed, is nearly circumscribed by ledges of living coral, which project beyond each other at different depths; on the northern side of the island the first of these had an easy slope from the beach to a distance of about fifty yards, when it terminated abruptly about three fathoms under water. The next ledge had a greater descent, and extended to two hundred yards from the beach, with twenty-five fathoms over it, and there ended as abruptly as the former, a short distance beyond which no bottom could be gained with two hundred fathoms of line."

Judging from the known volcanic form and nature of many of the elevated islands, from the above description of Henderson Island, and from the general oval or circular shape of the low coral islands and reefs, which most frequently have in their centres lagoons or depressions corresponding with the craters of volcanic peaks, it may easily be conceived that this whole region of archipelagoes has been the theatre of grand sub-aquatic volcanic action, which resulted in the raising up of cones to various degrees of elevation—some above, others below, the level of the sea. Those submerged cones which approached nearest to the surface were pitched upon by the insect workers as the bases of their coralline structure, which being reared comparatively a short distance to the surface, the islands thus formed appeared in the same circular or oval shape as the peaks upon which they were founded. The insects, having from their calcareous secretions built up their cellular abode beyond the reach of the highest tides, have died out and left a desert rock; which, however, by the secretion of vegetable matter from the waves, has soon become possessed of a soil capable of affording germination and sustenance to the cocoa palm (Haari) and other hardy plants, and, in a short time, to a luxuriant growth of all the most delicious tropical productions. On the more elevated islands the decomposition of the volcanic stones has produced an exceedingly fertile soil.

These islands are all singularly destitute of the useful and valuable metals, neither gold, silver, iron, nor copper being found; but their mineral resources are as yet unexplored, and comparatively unknown.

Natural Productions.—The flora of Polynesia embraces a very great number and variety of fruit trees and plants of esculent nature, which grow in tropical luxuriance, supplying all the wants of the natives, and rendering agriculture almost needless. The Paea or Bread-fruit, (*Artocarpus incisa*,) the Haari, or Cocoa-nut, the Taro, (*Arum esculentum*,) the Pia, (*Tacca pinnatifida*,) similar to the arrow-root, the Plantain and Banana, (*Musa sapientum* and *Musa paradisiaca*,) the yam, (*Dioscorea alata*,) the Chinese Paper Mulberry, (*Morus papyrifera*,) the Hala, (*Pandanus odorat.*,) the Rata, (*Inocarpus edulis*,) a native chestnut, the Vi, a species of plum, the Ahio, resembling the apple, the Sandal-wood, (*Santælum Freyeinetianum*,) the Kukui, (*Aleurites triloba*,) and the To, or sugar-cane, are the principal indigenous productions. Oranges, limes, shaddocks, citrons, tamarinds, pine-apples, guavas, figs, the coffee plant, and other exotics have been introduced into various of the islands, and thrive well. The vine was cultivated by the missionaries, but has been destroyed in the wars. Many of our domestic vegetables—as beans, cabbages, cucumbers, melons, pumpkins, &c., are also raised to some extent.

The bread-fruit is entitled to a place in the first rank, being the principal article of food of the natives. It is cooked in various ways, generally roasted or baked. The tree produces three or four crops in a year. There are fifty varieties of this tree. The cocoa-palm flourishes alike in the most fertile valleys and on the wildest rocky beach and mountain sides. The yam, which affords an excellent article of food, is not very extensively cultivated, though in some islands it is raised in the rich valleys, or on prepared terraces. The taro, which has a broad and beautiful silvery green leaf, grows in soil covered with water. The root may be eaten at the age of one year or less, but it attains its excellence in two or three years. Both the leaf and the root have an exceedingly pungent flavor when in the undressed state—a fact which the tongue of the writer can bear sad testimony to; but in cooking this is completely dissipated, and the root forms a wholesome, palatable food. It is baked like the bread-fruit, and afterwards beaten into paste, called poë. The root of the pia, beaten to pulp and washed repeatedly, and dried in the sun, forms a very nutritive substance, similar to arrow-root, and may in time become an imported article of commerce. The to, or sugar-cane, grows spontaneously in the Hawaiian Islands, and considerable attention is latterly paid to its cultivation, so that it has come to be quite an article of commerce, as will appear when we come to treat particularly of those islands. From the ti root (*dracona terminalis*) an inebriating spirit called ava is distilled by means of a very rude and primitive apparatus, consisting of a hollow log to receive the macerated root, a bamboo reed passing thence through a trough of water, and a calabash to receive the condensed vapor. The most shameful, demoralizing, and even murderous effects of drunkenness usually followed the indulgence in this liquor by the natives, on festive occasions. The introduction, however, of foreign distilled liquors among some of the islanders, has, as a less evil, displaced in a great measure this horrid stimulus. It is thought this root possesses valuable medicinal qualities, which may be developed in time. Sandal-wood was formerly cut to a great extent and exported to China, where it is used in the preparation of incense for burning in the temples. Latterly the wood has been becoming scarce, and a great falling off has taken place in the quantity exported. It is, too, inferior to the sandal-wood of the East Indies. From the inner bark of the paper mulberry, a kind of cloth or matting is made, which is used by the natives for various purposes of clothing, bedding, &c. The kukui tree yields a nut rich in oil, which is, to some extent, being brought into the market. The natives used the nuts for candle purposes, stringing a number of them upon a rush, and enveloping the whole in leaves of the pandanus.

The fauna of Polynesia is not distinctive, except in the absence of the larger and nobler animals. Of the vertebrata there are dogs, hogs, and rats; the albatros, tropic-bird, petrels, herons, and wild ducks, wood-peckers, turtle-doves, and pigeons, the parroquet, (*trichoclossus*,) with various other genera of fowl; besides an abundance of fishes. Horses, asses, cows, oxen, sheep, goats, cats, and other foreign domestic animals have been introduced, and thrive well. The native hog has almost disappeared, being supplanted by the European, which is reared to a very great extent. Pork is now the favorite animal food of the islanders, although the flesh of the dog is highly prized. The method of preparing the meat of either of these animals, in the Sandwich Islands, is to surround it with potatoes and the taro root, and envelop the whole in taro leaves, and place the mass in an oven of hot stones to bake. The dish is called by the natives *lu-au*. American gentlemen who have feasted on *lu-aued* pig and dog, say they cannot readily distinguish between the two—they are equally good. The delicate canine animal is small, and destitute of hair; he subsists upon a vegetable diet, being fattened upon poë and potatoes. The Friendly Islanders ate rats formerly. These are of the family of marsupia, akin to the kangaroo.

The coasts and lagoons of the islands abound in fish—sharks, the bonito, ray, albicore, rock-fish; in the fresh water streams, salmon, eels, &c.; and crabs, turtles, &c. are caught. The *cachelot*, or sperm whale, the cape whale, humpback, black-fish, porpoises, and others of the cetacea order are abundant in these seas. A single male cachelot often yields 70 to 90 barrels of oil, and 15 barrels of spermaceti.

Inhabitants—character and number.—The native population of Polynesia consists of two distinct races of the human family, more or less intermixed, however, in most of the islands: the one, Papuan, or oriental negro of New Holland, and the other, called generally the Polynesian race, approaching nearly to the Malay race of Asia. In some of the islands traces of both races may be found in equal extent, while, generally, the features of one or the other are predominant. An arbitrary line projected from Mt. St. Elias, on the coast of Russian America, about S. S. W., leaving the Hawaiian Islands and New-Zealand on the east, will be found a convenient division. West of this line the negro type greatly prevails, being most marked in New-Guinea, New-Britain, New-Caledonia, and the Solomon

Islands. The natives of Tahiti, (Society group,) the Sandwich, the Friendly Islands, and New-Zealand, present the finest specimens of the Polynesian race, being tall, well formed, of intelligent expression, and of pleasing, graceful manners. The New-Zealand branch of this family is called by themselves "Maori," or pure, in distinction from the mixed races of the Fidji and other adjoining islands, though even here the flat nose and curly hair occur to considerable extent.

The language is essentially the same over this whole extent from New-Zealand to Hawaii on the north, and to Vaihou or Easter Island on the east—a distance of 70 degrees of latitude, and 60 or 80 of longitude. When first discovered, the natives of these islands, although possessing many interesting features of character, were found to be sunken in sensualism, barbarism, and idolatry. Destructive wars, with attendant cannibalism, were of incessant occurrence; chastity was entirely unknown; polygamy was generally prevalent, notwithstanding a kind of civil marriage was recognized; and their only religious notions seemed to consist in the worship of demons and certain of the meanest animals. The society of Areoi, of Tahiti and other islands, was a mixed community, having wives in common, and they destroyed all their offspring. Infanticide is still sadly prevalent in many islands.

Since our first knowledge of these people, their numbers have been constantly, and even rapidly diminishing, and it has seemed as if the work of depopulation would, at no distant day, be complete. Since the partial introduction of Christianity and civilization by the missionaries and merchantmen, the progress of decay has, however, been in some measure arrested, by the removal of the causes. But, although for a half century the diminution has been less rapid, it has up to the present time continued steadily.

The following table, from Jarvis's Hawaiian History, (Boston, 1843,) "will illustrate, in some degree, the decrease of population since the time of Cook." The census, as collected by the natives, is not much to be relied on, especially those of a few years back. In taking them it was, I suppose, only to get at the taxable polls, and great reluctance and deceit prevailed among the people, which prevented any positive accuracy; still, sufficient facts are established to show the general rate of decrease. Cook's vague estimate in 1779 made the population 400,000; but 300,000 would have been nearer the truth.

A loose estimate for 1823	142,050
A census in 1832	130,313
A census in 1836	108,570

"The census for this year (1840) is not accurately known; but the population of the group is estimated at upwards of 100,000, of whom one thousand are foreigners, and an equal number of half-breeds."—*Haw. Hist.*

Capt. Cook estimated the population of Tahiti at 120,000. Capt. Wilson, in 1797, about 20 years later, after a careful enumeration, found it to be a little more than 16,000. At present the number does not exceed 7 or 8,000. From the estimates of Cook, Forster, and others, the whole of Polynesia was thought to contain, 70 years ago, a population of about two millions. This number was doubtless then exaggerated, and 800,000 may be considered a high estimate of the entire present population, including New Zealand and the Papuan Islands.

Some of these islands have favorably received the missionaries of the Christian religion, and have felt its beneficial influences, principally in its civilizing tendencies. Tahiti was one of the earliest recipients of these blessings. On the 6th of March, 1797, a party of missionaries from London were landed on the island by Capt. Wilson, from the ship Duff. They were well treated by the natives, but after eleven years, during which time they had made no converts, they abandoned the island, leaving a few of their number on the neighboring island, Eimeo. But about this time Pomare, the king or principal chief of Tahiti, being driven out by a body of insurgents, took refuge in Eimeo, where, in his distresses, he was induced to listen to the teachings of the missionaries, and became a convert to Christianity. To give publicity to his change of faith, a turtle—a sacred animal—one *tapued*,—was served up and eaten. Other chiefs followed his example, and their influence was felt upon their subjects. Pomare was subsequently invited back to Tahiti by a number of partisans, and finally, in 1815, he succeeded in subduing the insurgent party and established the new religion, overthrowing the old *morais*, or temples and altars. His sister, Aimata, who succeeded as queen in 1827, also supported the Christian religion.

An entire revolution has occurred in the Sandwich Islands, which, having become civilized and Christianized, have taken their place among the nations of the earth as an independent kingdom, acknowledged and welcomed as such by some of the most powerful governments of the globe. A most marked change has also taken place in the character of the New Zealanders within fifty years, owing to the efforts of the missionaries, and the intercourse with foreigners, merchants and others engaged in commerce. Natives of the islands, adopt the costumes, the habits, the employments of the whites who have come among them, and are gradually raising themselves up to their level. Some are employed by the settlers as servants, and as tillers of the soil; others are engaged as artisans, sailors, &c. Here, as well as in Tahiti, the Sabbath is observed, schools are well attended, and regular government and laws are established and respected. New Zealand is a British colony. The Society Islands are under French influence, who have also settlements on the Marquesas; but recent accounts from Tahiti and Raiatea inform us, that Queen Pomare has been dethroned, and that revolutionary movements are on foot. The commerce of these islands is considerable, being frequented by whalers, and by merchant ships on their way to Australia, from Europe or the American coast.

The Sandwich Islands.—The Hawaiian, or Sandwich group, consists of eleven islands: Hawaii, from which the cluster derives its more modern name, the largest, and also the most southern and eastern, Maui, Kahoolawe, Lanai, Molokai, Oahu, Kauai, and Niihau, with three others, smaller and uninhabited. The chain extends, in the order enumerated, from southeast to northwest,—Kauai, the most northerly, being in latitude 22° north, and longitude 83° west from Washington. They occupy a most favorable position in the North Pacific, and form a convenient stopping-place—a kind of half-way-house between Western America and China and the Indies. They are distant about 5,500 miles east by south from China, 5,100 miles west by north from Panama, about 4,000 miles nearly west from Tehuantepec, and 2,400 miles west-south-west from San Francisco—about the point of their nearest approach to the American continent.

Hawaii contains about 4,300 square miles of surface; it is 88 miles in length from north to south, and 73 in breath,—in shape approaching a scalene triangle. Maui, 48 miles long by 30 broad, contains 600 square miles. Oahu, 46 miles in length by 25 in width, has an area of 550 square miles. Kauai, nearly circular, has 500 square miles; Molokai, 190; Lanai, 125; Niihau about 100; and Kahoolawe about 75. Molokini, Kauai and Lehua are mere small rocky islands; the two latter being much frequented by wild fowl. *Kailua*, with a population of 2,000, is the principal town of Hawaii. *Hilo*, on the northeast side of the island, has a fine harbor. *Lahaina*, the capital of Maui, is also the capital of the kingdom,—the residence of the king and his court. The population is about 3,000. There is no harbor at this port, but an open roadstead, yet it is resorted to by numbers of American whalers. *Honolulu*, on the island of Oahu, is the commercial metropolis, with a population of about 10,000. It is on the south side of the island, with a secure harbor, capable of admitting sixty or eighty sail of vessels of 500 tons burthen.

The population of the islands, according to the enumeration of 1832, was 130,313; the census of 1836 gave 108,579; in 1846 the inhabitants numbered 95,400; and according to the returns of 1849—the latest we have—the total population amounted to but 80,641; of which number 1,787 were foreigners and 78,854 were natives. The inhabitants were distributed among the different islands as follows: Hawaii, 27,204; Oahu, 23,145; Maui, 18,671; Kauai, 6,941; Molokai, 3,429; Niihau, 723; Lanai, 523. There is also a small fishing population upon the rock Kahoolawe, which is probably included in the enumeration of the adjoining islands, Maui and Lanai.

From these figures it will be seen that a continued decrease is going on in the number of the population, at a startling ratio. Considering the census returns, especially of the earlier years, to be approximative to the truth, we have an annual rate of diminution for the four years, from 1832 to 1836, about four and one-half per cent. (.045;) for the ten years, from 1836 to 1846, the rate of one and one-third per cent. (.013;) and for the last three years, from 1846 to 1849, five and a half per centum per annum. The decrease for the entire 17 years was at the rate of 38 per cent. on the population of 1832, and the *average annual* rate of decrease for the same time was a little less than three per cent. Such, however, is the disproportion between these different annual rates, (.045, .013, and .055,) that, in the absence of any sufficient reason therefor, it is presumable that the returns for 1836, and perhaps for 1849, were incorrect, and fell short of the true number of the inhabitants.

But while the aboriginal population is diminishing, the number of foreign residents increases, and the mixed races are also rapidly augmenting in numbers, while they are fast rising in respectability. Nine years ago the foreign population numbered one thousand, of whom about seven hundred were Americans; the remainder were Englishmen, Frenchmen, Spaniards, Portuguese, Chilians and Chinese. Sixty American families were domiciliated in the islands, and several of other nations; besides the families of Americans and others who have married native wives of intelligence, refinement, and a high order of respectability. In 1846 the foreign population of Honolulu alone was about one thousand, including thirty-eight American families and twelve of other nations. In all the islands there were seventy-four American families, including thirty-five families attached to the American Missions, numbering in the aggregate about 350 souls, and averaging four or five members to each family. A considerable number of these are born upon the islands; the number of white ladies *not* born there was 90 residents; besides some who are there only transiently, as the wives of captains and officers. Of the foreigners residing on the islands in 1846, 350 had taken the oath of allegiance to the king and government, and become naturalized. A law passed by the chiefs requires one to give two years' notice of his intention to take the oath, and also to produce certificates of good character. During the year ending March 31st, 1852, 130 foreigners took the oath of allegiance to his majesty; of these, 66, or one-half, were natives of the United States; 31 of Great Britain; 15 of China; 4 of Germany; 2 of British America; and 11 of other countries.

Natural Resources and Productions.—The soil of the Sandwich Islands is less fertile than that of any other islands of Polynesia, but much of the land is well adapted to grazing purposes. Excellent wheat grows wild on the highlands of Maui, and the Irish potato also grows finely here. Cotton and indigo also flourish extremely well, but are not yet raised to any great extent. The coffee plant thrives luxuriantly, and at Hilo yields from six to ten pounds per tree. From the kukui-nut an oil is expressed, capable of superseding linseed oil, for painting purposes. Several mills are in operation. The pia-root (arrow-root) is manufactured and exported to a small extent. It is worth in the islands about ten cents a pound. Tobacco grows well, and a small quantity has been raised. Wild cattle exist in herds on the mountains of Hawaii. The bullocks have been much hunted for their hides, from five to ten thousand having been killed per annum. In 1840 the king laid a *tapu* upon them for five years; that is, forbid their destruction during that time, in order that their numbers might increase. Wild goats have been numerous, whose hides, also, have been exported; large packs of wild dogs, which roam about the mountains, have latterly, however, destroyed many of their number. Among the natural productions is to be reckoned salt, which is obtained from a natural salt lake in the crater of an extinct volcano, a few miles from Honolulu. The lake is a mile in circumference, and yields an abúndant supply of salt. The forests yield some of the finest varieties of cabinet woods.

Most of the sandal-wood at present grown upon the islands is small, and no great quantity is exported. The first cargo was shipped from Kauai or Kauhai in 1792, by Capt. Kendrick, of Boston, but the trade was not extended in any considerable degree for ten years. During the reign of Kamehameha I., the export trade of this article was encouraged, and reached the amount of some hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth annually. In the short reign of Liholiho, from 1819 to 1824, his predecessor's careful policy was abandoned, and the sandal-wood was cut and exported to an immense extent, and, indeed, until the supply became nearly exhausted. Vessels were frequently bought and paid for in sandal-wood; a pit being dug equal to the size of the vessel, and filled with the fragrant wood. A pleasure barge from Salem, Mass., which cost not more than ten thousand dollars originally, was exchanged in this manner for a quantity of sandal-wood which yielded upwards of $60,000. The growth of the sandal-tree is very slow. The pieces of timber at first exported were twelve to eighteen inches in diameter, and were cut six to ten feet in length. When the demand for it, however, became very great, it was brought to the coast by the natives in billets of all sizes, down to an inch in thickness and a foot or two in length, being sold by weight. At one time a tax was imposed upon the natives, requiring each one to bring in one pikul, or 133 pounds weight, or in default to pay the sum of $4 each.

The silk culture was commenced in 1837 with every prospect of success. The mulberry tree was found to flourish well, several varieties of which, the morus multicaulis, the Canton, the white, and the black, have been introduced. A company was formed, who sent an agent to the United States to purchase machinery, procure plants and varieties of eggs, and also to obtain all needed information concerning the business. He succeeded in all these particulars, and the enterprise was begun; but unfortunately a bad location was chosen, the trees and worms did ill, and through mismanagement the capital was all sunk in three years, and the attempt was abandoned. An individual has, however, since prosecuted the experiment with his own resources, upon the island of Kauai, and has succeeded admirably. The worms used are a cross between the United States breed and a smaller species from China. The cocoons are large, of a pale straw color, or a bright orange. From four to six thousand make a pound of reeled silk. The native boys and women reel, each, from half a pound to one pound per day. Quite a number of the natives are employed upon this single plantation, in the various departments of the culture. A crop of 300,000 to 1,000,000 of worms has been raised monthly, during nine months of the year. In the year 1841 $200 worth of raw silk was exported from Honolulu.

The sugar-cane is an indigenous production of these islands. It was formerly reared by the natives for the sake of the juice, which they took in its natural state, by suction. In 1835 its cultivation for the purpose of manufacturing sugar was begun on Kauai, the most northwestern island. The first attempt was made by a mercantile house in Honolulu, and was soon followed up by the natives, who held and tilled many small plantations. Iron mills were imported in 1840. They are worked by water-power, which is abundant. The quantity of land planted in the cane ten years ago was about one thousand acres. The soil yields from ten to fifteen hundred pounds per acre: sometimes three or four thousand pounds are yielded. The best mills turn out one to four tons daily. The sugar which has been manufactured is brown, and the price at the mills gradually fell in a few years from eight cents per pound to two or four. A superior article, clear, light sugar, brought last year seven cents, while foreign sugars were held at five and six. Molasses, of a superior quality, and syrups, are made, which at first brought in market 37½ cents per gallon, but the price has fluctuated from 25 to 35 cents.

The coffee crop is getting to be one of great importance. A schooner arrived at Honolulu the 13th April, 1852, from Hanalei, Kauai, with 25,000 pounds, from the plantation of Mr. Titcomb. This gentleman's crop for the last year amounted to 80,000 pounds. The crop of Mr. G. Rhodes was 17,000 pounds. 200,000 pounds were estimated to be still on hand, of last year's crop, on all the islands, in the month of April last.

In 1836 the amount of American property of all kinds invested at the islands was estimated at $400,000. In 1842 it was estimated at one million, including one hundred thousand, the value of property held by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The amount at present is greatly larger. These investments consisted in shipping, trading stock, houses, improvements, and the capital expended in agricultural pursuits, &c. The property held by the American Board consists of dwelling-houses, printing-offices and presses, a bindery, school-houses, libraries, and apparatus, with furniture, cattle, &c., for the personal use of the missionaries. The value of foreign property other than American was about $200,000.

The imports from the United States consisted, in 1840–41, of cotton cloths, bleached and brown, blue prints, chintz, glass, Britannia-ware, hardware, iron, copper, canvas, cordage, paints, naval stores, bread, flour, provisions, wines, ardent spirits, soap, shoes, clothing, books, furniture, lumber, &c. &c. From California were imported sea otter skins, land furs, hides, horses, tallow, soap, lumber, beans, &c. From China, blue nankeens, blue cottons, silks, satins, teas, furniture, &c. From Mexico, specie and bullion. From England, long-cloths, broad-cloths, clothing, chintz, prints, hardware, spirits, malt liquors, &c. From Chili, the same as from England and the United States; also French goods. From Russian America, lumber, spars, salmon, &c. Society Islands, turtle-shells, cocoa-nut oil, pearls and pearl-shell, and sugar. Manilla, rice, cigars, rope, hats, and manufactures of china, England and United States.

A very large portion of the foreign imports into the Sandwich Islands is for the purpose of being re-shipped to other markets; but we have no data at hand to show what quantity has been thus re-exported; it amounts to fully one-third.

CUSTOM-HOUSE RETURNS.—WHOLE VALUE OF GOODS IMPORTED AND EXPORTED.

	Imports.	Exports.		Tariff Duties.
1843	$223,383 38	——	1843..Net amount received	$8,121 64
1844	350,347 12	$479,640 90	1844	13,380 85
1845	546,941 72	706,102 78	1845	29,220 30
1846	575,000 00	750,000 00	1846	38,006 00

The revenue is derived from the customs, poll-taxes, licenses, stamp duties, and a small land tax upon the farmers. Real and personal property are subject to taxation whenever a deficit arises from other sources.

The amount realized from the sale of licenses for the year ending March 31st, 1852, was $25,042 25.

The government of the Hawaiian Islands is a constitutional monarchy. Kamehameha I., called the Great, united the islands under one government, in the latter part of the last century, and died in 1819. His eldest son, Liholiho, succeeded, and after a short and dissipated reign, died in 1824, in England, leaving his mother Kaahumanu, the queen dowager, regent during the minority of her younger son. She died, however, in 1832, and the youthful king took the reins of government, under the title of Kamehameha III.

In February, 1843, Lord George Paulet, of H. B. M.'s ship Carysfort, forcibly seized the islands, and nominated a provisional government, or commission, consisting of King Kamehameha, (or a deputy by him appointed,) the Rt. Hon. Lord G. Paulet, Duncan F. Mackay, Esq., and Lieut. Frere, of the Royal Navy, to administer the government while awaiting her majesty's pleasure. Rear Admiral Thomas, however, by order of his government, on the 31st July, of the same year, surrendered the islands to their rightful king. Since then they have remained unmolested by foreign interference, except in the attempts of France, before referred to, to influence their legislation and policy, and their independence has been acknowledged by the United States, England and France.

The executive department, as organized by the law of 1846, consists of five bureaus: the "Interior," "Foreign Relations, "Finance," "Public Instruction," and "Law." The heads of these bureaus, who, together, constitute the cabinet council, are appointed and removable by the king. Their salaries are $2,000 each. The governors of the several islands are all chiefs, and, with the cabinet, form the privy council. Their salaries vary from $3,000 to $5,000. The king receives annually $6,000 from the treasury, and from other sources perhaps an equal amount. The queen's allowance is distinct. With the exception of the king and a few chiefs, all the important and onerous portions of the administration of government is carried on by foreigners naturalized.

The civil and moral revolution which has been effected within fifty years is truly wonderful. The language of the natives has been reduced to writing; the Bible has been translated into it, the printing-press has been introduced, schools established, &c., &c. In the city of Honolulu are two large houses of worship belonging to Protestant churches, a seamen's chapel, and a Roman Catholic cathedral. Some of the principal buildings are those used for educational purposes. About 20,000 pupils, of both sexes, annually attend the common schools, most of whom, however, learn simply to read and write. There are also schools of a higher grade. The knowledge of the English language is rapidly extending among all classes. $20,000 are annually appropriated towards the maintenance of the public schools. The government has an official press, "The Polynesian," of which an edition of 600 copies is weekly printed; 400 are for subscribers, a portion of the remainder being distributed gratuitously, and a portion reserved for government use and for binding. The report of the Minister of the Interior, last April, shows that the press, besides printing a great deal of matter for the departments free, gave a net profit of $184 99 to the treasury, for the year ending 31st March.

Dr. Wood, surgeon of the U. S. Navy, who visited these islands in 1844, thus speaks of one of the schools of Hawaii: "We visited the school of native children, superintended by Mr. Lyman, one of the missionaries. There were about fifty boys in the school, of various ages and sizes. Their books of instruction, printed in their own language, comprised works of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, history, geography, natural philosophy, and anatomy. They had also maps and engravings, creditably executed by the natives themselves.

"The pupils made some arithmetical calculations for us on the black-board, and it had a strange effect to see the familiar figures and results of arithmetic developing themselves upon the board, accompanied by a language so recently foreign to science as the Hawaiian. The pupils of this school are clothed by the Board of Foreign Missions, which, indeed, sustains the school, with the exception of a few, whose parents have sufficient means to support and clothe them. A fine farm is connected with the school, and is cultivated by the boys." Dr. W. also visited the chiefs' school, in charge of Mr. and Mrs. Cooke, of the United States, an institution for the purpose of instructing the children of the nobility in our language and literature. One of the young ladies he describes as extremely beautiful. They performed on the piano, and sang songs familiar in America. One of these young ladies has since been married to an American gentleman, the district attorney for the island of Oahu. There have been many such marriages.

The entire amount expended on the Sandwich Islands for educational purposes during the year 1850, may be estimated as follows:—

On the public schools	$25,891 96
On select schools supported by government	1,929 52
On select schools supported by voluntary efforts	11,061 00
Ministers' salary, clerk hire, stationery, &c.	4,264 11
	$43,146 59

Six years ago upwards of $5,000 were annually expended by the government and merchants in forwarding letters through Mexico to the United States and Europe. The number of letters received from Dec., 1850, to March 31, 1852, was: from the United States, 6,088; and from all other foreign countries, 3,500; total received, 9,588. Letters forwarded during the same time to the United States, 9,199; and to all other foreign countries, 6,000; total sent, 15,199.

The postage of a single letter from the United States to the Sandwich Islands, by California, is 11 cents, six of which, or the postage to San Francisco, must be pre-paid in the United States.*

Imports for the year 1850, from the following countries:

California	$305,913 28	Vancouver's Island	$15,942 59
United States	283,037 49	France	7,633 48
Great Britain	63,987 69	Columbia River, Sitka, Bremen, Kamtschatka, Callao, Bonin Isles	24,063 90
British Colonies	114,782 11		$1,035,058 79
China	109,124 19		
Chili	58,097 84		
Manilla	33,187 84		
Tahiti	19,288 29		

Statement of Imports, Duties, and Exports claiming Drawback, at the Port of Honolulu, for the year 1850.

	Gross invoice value.	Gross Duties.	Value re-exported.	Return Duties.	Net Consumption.
Goods paying 5 per cent. duty	920,677 48	46,035 58	28,236 31	1,129 82	892,441 17
Spirits, wines, &c.	24,451 94	112,568 03	14,593 41	85,557 30	9,858 53
By Consuls and Missions, free	24,684 80	—	—	—	24,684 80
Remitted	49,572 00	—	—	—	49,572 00
By whale-ships under $200 each	15,672 48	—	—	—	15,672 48
	1,035,058 70	158,603 61	42,829 72	86,687 12	992,228 98
Add amount of spirits and wines in Bond, Dec. 31, 1849, estimated at	18,000 00	44,000 00	—	—	18,000 00
	1,053,058 70	202,603 61	42,829 72	86,687 12	1,010,228 98
Deduct, spirits & wines now in bond which will probably be exported, estimated at	—	—	3,700 00	24,000 00	3,700 00
	1,053,058 70	202,603 61	46,529 72	110,687 12	1,006,528 98

Domestic Exports from Honolulu and Lahaina, for the year 1850.

HONOLULU AND KAUAI.

Sugar	lbs	597,731	Lime	bbls	100
Molasses	galls	34,900	Beef	"	10
Syrup	"	9,000	Hides	lbs	20,241
Coffee	lbs	194,073	Tallow	"	3,703
Salt	bbls	5,750	Goatskins	skins	24,963

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* NOTE.—Some of the most important information in the present article is derived from the valuable labors of James J. Jarvis, Esq., Director of the Government Press, Honolulu, author of the *History of the Hawaiian Islands*; and we also acknowledge our indebtedness to Cheever's Life in the Sandwich Islands, lately issued from the press, (and which every one should get,) for many of our statistical tables.

Irish Potatoes	bbls	5,331
Sweet "	"	4,178
Onions	"	252
Yams	"	144
Arrow-root	lbs	6,956
Hay	tons	28½
Pickles	bbls	90½
Coral	blocks	1,628
Mustard-seed	lbs	1,023

Cattle 50, Horses 2, Mules 1, Sheep 10, Goats 10, Swine 179, Fowls 49 doz., Turkeys 19 doz., Eggs 2,010 doz., Brooms 410 doz., Pumpkins 4,678, Melons 950, Cocoanuts 2,100, Cocoanut door-mats 119, Wood 4 cords, Mat-bags 500, Oranges 22,000, Charcoal 69 bags.

Limes, Lime Juice, Peppers, Bananas, Poi, Butter, Rope, Furniture, and Sashes	$603 33
Total value as per Manifests	$139,007 79

LAHAINA.

Sugar	lbs	152,407
Molasses	galls	18,955
Syrup	"	66.577
Coffee	lbs	14,355
Salt	sacks	1,912
Lime	bbls	80
Irish Potatoes	"	46,626
Sweet Potatoes	bbls	$5,453
Onions	"	1,606
Yams	"	20
Arrow-root	lbs	2,676
Pickles	bbls	627
Coral	blocks	1,428

Sheep and Goats 182, Swine 444, Fowls 86½ doz., Eggs 504 doz., Pumpkins 62,016, Cocoanuts 22,450, Oranges 117,500, Melons 4,610, Pine-apples 14,300, Cabbages 1.600, Sweetmeats 212 galls., Lime-juice 304 galls., Beans 64 bbls., Corn 5 bbls., Butter 157 lbs., Vinegar 168 galls., Wood 61 cords, Lumber 21,072 feet.

Total value as per Manifests, from Lahaina	$241,314 84
" " " Honolulu	139,007 79
Value of Domestic Produce exported and furnished to ships at the three ports on the island of Hawaii, (estimated)	20,000 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 342 merchant vessels at Honolulu. Average $200 each	68,400 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 106 whale-ships (inside) at Honolulu. Average $250 each	26,500 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 13 ships of war and surveying vessels at Honolulu. Average $500 each	6,500 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 112 whale-ships at Lahaina. Average $220 each	24,640 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 127 merchant ships at Lahaina. Average $80 each	10,160 00
Total value of domestic exports and supplies furnished at Honolulu and Lahaina, for the year 1850	$536,522 63

Gross receipts at Custom-houses of Oahu, Maui, and Kauai, for 1850.

HONOLULU.

Import duties paid on Goods and on Spirits and Wines actually consumed	$91,953 11
Transit duties	443 42
Harbor dues	12,644 54
Stamps	2,579 50
Fines and forfeitures	877 46
Interest	323 50
Storage	3,245 15
	$112,066 68

HARBOR MASTER.

Shipping and discharging Seamen	2,711 00
Stamps	1,413 00
	116,190 68

LAHAINA.

Import duties	$2,323 48
Transit duties	39 92
Harbor dues	1,299 60
Stamps	1,276 00
Shipping Seamen	264 15
	$5,203 15

WAIMEA, KEALAKEAKUA, AND HILO.

Stamps and Harbor dues	112 90
	$5,316 05
Add amount from Honolulu	116,190 68
Total receipts	$121,506 73

Condition of the Revenue of the Hawaiian Kingdom, for the year ending 31st of March, 1851.

From cash on hand last year	$46,191 18
The Bureau of Foreign Imports	118,901 38
" Internal Commerce	22,514 75
" Internal Taxes	52,455 26
" Fees and Perquisites	15,314 72
" Coasting Trade and Fisheries	4,269 27
" Government Realizations	56,495 22
" Fines and Penalties	14,404 25
	$330,546 03

Table of Disbursements.

For the King and Privy Council	$19,966 16
" Department of the Interior	140,030 52
" " Foreign Relations	4,730 64
" " Finance	15,080 08
" " Public Instruction	28,825 07
" " Law	10,106 84
For miscellaneous expenses	10,106 84
For amount disbursed on bills payable, less than has accrued on bills receivable	2,126 42
	$250,707 56
Balance	79,838 47

Foreign Merchant Vessels, and Hawaiian Vessels from Foreign Voyages, entered at the Ports of Honolulu and Lahaina during the year 1850.

Nation.	HONOLULU Total Number of Vessels.	HONOLULU Total Tonnage.	LAHAINA Number of Vessels.	LAHAINA Amount of Tonnage.
United States	166	54,872	111	—
Great Britain and Colonies	118	24,177	6	—
France	8	2,300	-	—
Tahiti	7	367	1	—
Peru	2	1,300	-	—
Norway	2	475	-	—
Hawaii	14	1,732	8	—
Chili	8	1,283	-	—
Russia	3	838	-	—
Spain	2	600	-	—
Mexico	2	309	-	—
Hanover	4	560	1	—
Belgium	1	533	-	—
Denmark	3	448	-	—
Bremen	1	110	-	—
Sweden	1	400	-	—
	342	90,304	127	—
Numbers entered in 1849	157	—	18	—
Increase in 1850	185	—	109	—

Vessels of War and Government Surveying Vessels entered at Honolulu, 1850.

Date of Arrival.		Name.	Nation.	Guns.	Where from.	Where bound.
Jan.	15	Ewing	U. S. America	–	California *via* Hilo	California.
Feb.	26	Wanderer	Great Britain	10	Tahiti	San Francisco.
May	6	Herald	"	22	Mazatlan	Arctic Ocean.
June	6	Swift	"	6	"	Tahiti.
"	24	Enterprise	"	–	Plymouth, England	Kotzebue Sd.
"	29	Bayonnaise	France	24	Macao, China	Tahiti.
July	1	Investigator	Great Britain	–	Plymouth, England	Kotzebue Sd
"	3	Cockatrice	"	6	Mazatlan	Valparaiso.
Oct.	16	Herald	"	22	Port Clarence	Hong Kong.
"	23	Dolphin	U. S. America	10	Hong Kong	San Francisco.
Nov.	10	Falmouth	"	24	S. Francisco *via* Hilo	South Pacific.
Dec.	13	Serieuse	France	24	San Francisco	—
"	25	Baikaal	Russia	4	Ochotsk	—

Whale-ships entered at the Ports of Honolulu and Lahaina during the year 1850.

HONOLULU.		Tonnage.	Sperm Oil. bbls.	Whale Oil. bbls.	Whalebone. lbs.	LAHAINA.
American	106	46,935	15,106	256,495	2,621,000	105
French	11					3
Bremen	6					4
British	2					

ART. IV.—THE DELTA OF NORTHWESTERN MISSISSIPPI.*

I PROPOSE to furnish for the Review some sketches, more descriptive than historical or statistical, of that portion of the great Delta of the Mississippi, within the boundaries of the counties of Tunica, Coahoma, Washington, Issaquena, and Sunflower, in the State of Mississippi. Your periodical being practical as well as scientific, and intended also to develop and make known the resources of the "Southern and Western States," I claim that the facts, as well as information which I shall endeavor to furnish, hastily but truthfully, in the premises, will be valuable as well as useful, and thus entitled to a "place" in your journal. Permit me to premise by stating that nearly every acre in the above-named counties is essentially delta, or bottom land,—nearly the whole vast surface comprised within their limits being almost perfectly level. Those counties contain, in round numbers, about 3,530,000 acres of land, and it is distributed about as follows, to wit:

Tunica county contains about	350,000	acres.
Coahoma	630,000	"
Bolivar	600,000	"
Washington	750,000	"
Issaquena	650,000	"
Sunflower	550,000	"
Total lands in said counties	3,530,000	"

Of lands now entered and taxable, there are in

Tunica county about	158,000
Coahoma	100,000
Bolivar	300,000
Washington	450,000
Issaquena	300,000
Sunflower	130,000

The balance of the lands is either set apart for school purposes, subject to entry, held for sale for levee purposes, or to be sold as hereafter mentioned, by the State of Mississippi, for internal improvements.

In the cultivation of a small portion of the above lands, there are employed about 20,000 slaves—as follows, to wit:

In Washington county, about	8,000
" Issaquena	6,000
" Bolivar	2,500
" Coahoma	2,000
" Tunica	1,000
" Sunflower	800
Total slaves employed	20,300

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* We are always pleased to receive sketches of this character.—EDITOR.

This statement includes men, women and children. On these lands there are produced, and shipped to New-Orleans annually, about 100,000 bales of cotton; the net value of which will average nearly $3,000,000. There are over fifty thousand head of horned cattle in these counties.

In 1849 they paid into the state treasury, as state tax, independent of levee taxes, and such as are imposed for county purposes, as follows:

TAXES FOR 1849.

Washington County	$12,535. 16
Issaquena	7,871. 55
Bolivar	3,330. 74
Coahoma	1,987. 86
Tunica	1,792. 53
Sunflower	1,375. 82
Total state tax,	$28,893 66.[*]

These lands are situated between the 32d and 35th degrees of latitude; front on the Mississippi River nearly 300 miles, and have an average depth of about 45 miles. Nearly two-thirds, if not more, of this immense front on the Mississippi River has been leveed and secured from inundation. This has been accomplished by private enterprise, and through an equitable system of county levee taxation. The good work of completing these levees is not being abandoned by any "manner of means." On the contrary, the enterprising, intelligent, and industrious citizens of that part of the state are continuing their exertions, and manifesting a laudable zeal to master the old father of waters; and the state has at last come forward to aid them in their enterprise. If the same activity is manifested for the next two years, which has exhibited itself in the past two, the whole river front will be permanently and securely leveed, and this great wilderness of unsurpassed fertility will be permanently and amply secured for safe and successful cultivation. When such is the case its resources need but be made known to make it, in truth, "blossom as the rose." By an act of the Legislature of the State of Mississippi, passed in the year 1852, the Secretary of State is required to issue six hundred thousand acres of land-scrip, in quarter sections, to be used in the construction of levees in the above-named counties, in the proportion following, to wit:

To Tunica County	32,000	acres.
" Coahoma,	250,000	"
" Bolivar,	104,000	"
" Washington,	100,000	"
" Issaquena	100,00	"

That amount of land-scrip is to be handed by the Secretary of State to the officers of each county as aforesaid, and they are authorized to sell the land for fifty cents per acre. The legislature also authorized and required the sale of the 500,000 acres of internal improvement lands donated by Congress to this state, to be sold at a minimum of two dollars per acre, the money accruing from the sale of the first sixty thousand acres sold to be appropriated to the construction of levees, as follows:

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[*] These data are derived from the Report of Auditor Swann, in 1850.

To De Soto county	$5,000
" Tunica	15,000
" Coahoma	75,000
" Bolivar	25,000

Thus these counties will receive, when the lands are sold, $120,000 in cash, and 586,000 acres of land, to be used by them in the completion of their levees. These lands, or some of them, are to be sold at Jackson on the third Monday of November, 1852. Tunica, Coahoma, Bolivar, Washington, and Issaquena, each have a levee law, by which all the taxable lands in those counties are taxed from five cents to ten cents per acre for levee purposes. These facts need but to be stated to produce conviction that the levees will be completed, and permanently finished, and kept in repair. When this is done, there will be brought into market more than land enough to make one thousand large plantations within the limits mentioned in this article.

But little is known, except by its own citizens, or by those who have witnessed it, of this vast and exceedingly fertile tract of bottom land; and my object in this communication is to bring it into notice, and enable those who are in search of valuable, cheap, healthy, and admirably-located plantations, to know where they can find them. General Augustus W. McAllister, of Wild-wood, whose post-office is Greenville, Washington county; Hon. J. S. Yerger, same post-office; Capt. P. Burwell Starke, Lake Bolivar; Senator Alcorn, Coahoma; George N. Parks, Esq., Tallula, Issaquena county; General Byrne, of Tunica, and Colonel Murdock, of McNutt, Sunflower county, could give reliable and accurate information as to the location and value of these lands to such as need or would like to have information. A publication of this communication in your valuable Review will put the planting interest on inquiry, and may induce citizens of other states to make publicly known the resources of their own land.

Very respectfully, &c.,

VICKSBURG, *Sept. 4th*, 1852. A. K. SMEDES.

ART. V.—COMMERCIAL INDEPENDENCE OF THE SOUTH.

In our last number appeared a circular from some of the merchants of Baltimore, inviting a convention of delegates from all the commercial cities of the South, to be held in that city some time during next December.

Having several years ago published in the Review most of the documents which emanated from the Southern Commercial Conventions held in 1838–9, (to be found also in Vol. III. of our work on the Industrial Resources, etc. of the South,) we do not know of a more acceptable service that could be rendered in this juncture, than the publication of the remaining document, which we were unable to obtain at the time, but which has lately come to hand in a package of rather moth-eaten pamphlets. It is in the shape of an "Address to the People of the Southern and Southwestern States," from a committee consisting of A. B. Longstreet and Joseph Cummings, Esqs., of Georgia, Gen. McDuffie, Col. Blanding and C. G. Memminger, of South Carolina.

Although there are some positions in the address with which we do not fully concur, and others which time has not sustained, the main points of argument are irresistible, and quite as true and applicable in 1852 as they could have been in 1838, and therefore we do not hesitate to give it entire, not even excluding the passages which indicate a political bias. It becomes the South carefully to weigh and consider such documents, and if they are sound and true, to act upon them without delay.

The resolutions upon which the address was founded, are as follows.—[ED.

1. *Resolved*, That a direct trade is the natural channel of communication between nations, which offer to each other the best market for their natural productions; and that the intervention of a third party must operate as a tax upon the exchanges between them.

2. *Resolved*, That the Southern and Southwestern States of this Union afford those staples with which are purchased nearly the whole foreign imports of the country; that they are the consumers of a large portion of these imports, and ought naturally themselves to furnish the channel through which the exchange is made; that on no occasion have their citizens been found incapable of maintaining themselves in fair competition with other sections; and that the diversion of their trade from its natural channels, must have been brought about by the unequal action of the federal government, or by the abstraction of our people towards other pursuits.

3. *Resolved*, That in the opinion of this Convention, such a state of things should no longer continue; that the present condition of the commercial relations of the country, and the disruption of the existing channels of trade, afford an opportunity of breaking down the trammels which have so long fettered our commerce, and of restoring to the South its natural advantages; and that it is incumbent upon every man, who has at heart the good of his country, to lend his best exertions to the promotion of these objects, and to establish our trade upon a sound and permanent basis.

4. *Resolved*, That this Convention is fully aware of the difficulties to be overcome in the prosecution of their enterprise; but nothing daunted thereby, and fully relying upon the public spirit and zealous co-operation of their fellow-citizens, they are determined to advance with untiring perseverance; and with that view, do earnestly recommend the adoption of the following measures:

1. That an effort should be made to afford to the importers and purchasers at southern seaports, the same facilities which are offered elsewhere; and with this view it is recommended that the banks in the seaports should immediately apply a portion of their respective capitals to the purchase of foreign exchange, and to the procurement of credits or funds in Europe; and that they should afford the use of the same to the importing merchant, upon a discount or collateral pledge of such good paper as he may take from the merchants of the interior, and that this accommodation be afforded as well upon paper having more than six months to run, as upon that having less; and that the banks of the interior co-operate by collecting and remitting the proceeds of such paper to the banks on the sea-coast.

2. That with a view to the important subject of equalizing the exchanges between the southern and southwestern states and territories, this Convention earnestly recommend to the various banks of the principal cities, or such as may be conveniently located, to receive the bills of each other in their general business, and to adopt such arrangements for settlements, at short periods, as they may deem suitable and proper; the banks

against whom the balance should fall, to furnish funds for settling the same, or to pay an interest of six per cent. from the period of settlement.

3. That the merchants of the South and Southwest be earnestly recommended to give preference to the importers in their own markets, and that they afford them an opportunity of fair competition with other sections, by making their first calls for purchases at southern and southwestern seaports; and on the other hand, that the merchants at the seaports shall, forthwith, set about importing such stocks of goods, as will ensure, at fair rates, a supply to the demand from the merchants of the interior.

4. That an earnest and united effort should be made to draw home the capital invested by the South in banks and companies abroad; and to employ the same, together with such surplus capital as exists at home, in mercantile operations; and that with this view men of influence and character be earnestly invited to afford the benefit of their example, by entering into limited partnerships, under the laws lately passed by the states of Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee and Florida.

5. That this Convention cannot but view with deep regret the neglect of all commercial pursuits which has hitherto prevailed among the youth of our country, and which has necessarily thrown its most important interests into the hands of those who, by feeling and habit, are led into commercial connections elsewhere. This Convention, therefore, cannot too earnestly recommend the speedy adoption by all their fellow-citizens of measures *to introduce commercial education among our youth;* to train them up to habits of business, and thereby *to establish a body of merchants whose every interest and feeling shall be centered in the country which has reared and sustained them.*

5. *Resolved,* That this Convention is of opinion that the establishment by manufacturers in foreign countries of agencies in the chief southern ports, for the sale of the various articles exported by them to the United States, would conduce to the restoration of the direct foreign trade of the South; and that similar establishments for the sale of domestic manufactures would also be desirable.

FELLOW-CITIZENS,—The Committee appointed to carry into effect the seventh resolution of the Merchants' Convention, believe they cannot better subserve the purposes of their appointment, than by calling your attention to the existing relations of the Northern and Southern States,* and improving the evidence which they afford, of the importance of the enterprise which the Convention have in view.

At this moment (1838) pecuniary embarrassment, in a greater or less degree, pervades the whole country: every bank within its limits has suspended payment: there is hardly a dollar of specie in circulation: the moneyed institutions of the North and of the South, in point of solvency, are upon an equal footing: the foreign commerce of the country is sustained almost entirely by Southern productions: the foreign creditors are paid in Southern productions: and yet, exchanges between the North and the South are from seven to forty per centum in favor of the former: a Northern bank-note sustains the same relative value to a Southern bank-note: Southern credit is lamentably depressed, while Northern credit is comparatively firm: the dockets of our courts are crowded with suits brought by Northern houses against Southern houses. To meet the issues of these suits, our people are constrained to sue one another; and thus, their distresses are extended, and embittered by the prospects of the future. In the mean time our Northern brethren are reaping rich fruits from their vantage-ground. They send hither their funds —exchange them at an enormous premium for Southern funds—turn these into Southern staples (cash articles) at par—draw bills upon them, which they sell at like profit—reinvest the proceeds in the same way, and renew the operation as often as their own ready means of exchange and transportation will allow. We do not pretend to say that this is the universal, or even the prevailing mode of operation, or that it is confined exclusively to Northern men. Northern funds, to be the basis of this system, must have a currency at the South, which in but few instances they have: but that this has been the mode of procedure in some instances, and that the same thing is daily effected through other instrumentalities, we believe admits of no doubt. Nor let us be understood as attaching any blame to those who thus avail themselves of their means to profit by the times. It is a singular feature in this dismal picture, that the pecuniary embarrassments of the Southern states increase as they recede from the North; and (their age and population considered) in an exact ratio to their agricultural resources.

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* When we speak of the *South* and the *Southern States,* we embrace in the terms the Southwestern States.

Is this a natural state of things? If it be, we must acquiesce in the necessity that dooms us to it. But self-respect, to say nothing of self-interest, demands that we search for the causes of it, in order that we may reform it, if it be remediable. A brief recurrence to the commercial and financial history of the United States will teach us that, in the natural order of things, the positions of the two sections should be precisely reversed; and that nothing will more effectually secure to the people of the South their natural advantages, than a direct trade between them and foreign nations.

Before we commence the review, we take leave to observe, that we cannot assent to the opinion too often expressed, that the embarrassment of the Southern people is the result of a wild and reckless spirit of adventure and speculation on their part. That this may to some extent have had its effects, is very probable; but that it is the leading cause of their distress, we are not prepared to admit. We believe, that could it now be known what were the resources and prospects of all who have failed, at the time when they incurred the debts which effected their ruin, it would be found, that not one in twenty of them is justly chargeable with imprudence even, in incurring those debts. Is the planter, whose cotton crop netted him fifty thousand dollars in December, 1836, and who in January following, when cotton was on the advance, incurred a debt of forty thousand dollars, in order to double the succeeding crop, to be charged with folly, because in May, 1837, his property sunk to nothing, from causes which human prudence could not have foreseen? Is the merchant, who sold out his stock in 1836 at a large profit, and having found it too small for the demand, doubled it, and with it his debt, to meet the demand of 1837, to be called a wild adventurer, because he did not foresee the disasters of that year! And yet probably few, who sunk under the pressure of that year, were as indiscreet as these men are supposed to have been. None blame the creditors; but equal censure belongs to the man who runs extravagantly in debt, and the man who credits him.

The time was, when the people of the South were the largest importers in the country.

"In 1769, the value of the imports of the several colonies was as follows:

Of Virginia	£851,140	sterling.
New-England States	561,000	"
New-York	189,000	"
Pennsylvania	400,000	"
South Carolina	555,000	"

"The exports were in about the same proportion; Virginia exporting nearly four times as much as New-York; and South Carolina nearly twice as much as New-York and Pennsylvania together; and five times as much as all the New-England States united.

"The same relative proportion of imports is preserved until the adoption of the federal constitution, when we find them to be in the year 1791 as follows:

Of New-York	$3,222,000
Virginia	2,486,000
South Carolina	1,520,000

"There are no data to show the imports into the several states from the year 1791 to 1820, but the general fact may be assumed, that the import trade of New-York and other northern states, has been constantly progressing, while that of Virginia and South Carolina has as regularly diminished. From 1821, to the present time, we have sufficient data, and they exhibit the following, as the state of the import trade:

New-York.		Virginia.		South Carolina.	
1821	$23,000,000	1821	$1,078,000	1821	$3,000,000
1822	35,000,000	1822	864,000	1822	2,000,000
1823	29,000,000	1823	681,000	1823	2,000,000
1824	36,000,000	1824	639,000	1824	2,400,000
1825	49,000,000	1825	553,000	1825	2,150,000
1827	39,000,000	1827	431,000	1827	1,800,000
1829	43,000,000	1829	375,000	1829	1,240,000
1832	57,000,000	1832	550,000	1832	1,213,000

"Thus the import trade of New-York has gradually increased from £189,000 sterling, about $840,000, in the year 1769, and from about three millions of dollars in 1791, to the enormous sum, in 1832, of fifty-seven millions of dollars! While Virginia has fallen off, in her import trade, from two and a half millions of dollars, in 1791, to $375,000 in 1829, and $550,000 in 1832, not a great deal more than the freight of half a dozen ships!

"From these calculations, a few curious facts appear. The imports of New-York were, in 1832, seventy times as great as they were in 1769, and nearly twenty times more than they were in 1791. Virginia, on the other hand, imported, in 1829, about one-eleventh of what she did in 1769, and about one-seventh of what she did in

1791. In a period, too, of eight years, the aggregate imports of New-York amounted to 311 millions of dollars; those of South Carolina to about 16 millions, and those of Virginia to about five millions! New-York imported, therefore, in 1832, eleven times as much as Virginia did in eight years preceding, and nearly four times as much in the single year of 1832, as South Carolina imported in a period of eight years. Again, New-York imported in one year (1832) nearly fifty times as much as South Carolina in the same year, and about 110 times as much as Virginia."

We acknowledge our indebtedness for the foregoing extract to a writer in the Richmond Whig, who, under the signature of "Patrick Henry," has favored the public with a series of numbers, assistant to our purpose, which are worthy to be read by every southron.

At the conclusion of the last war with Great Britain, Georgia commenced quite a brisk and profitable importing business; but it declined in a few years, and its subsequent history may be seen in the history of the trade of South Carolina.

Having shown the decline of southern trade, we proceed to inquire into the causes of it. In the course of our research, the reader will discover the prime cause of our present embarrassments.

The Committee of Ways and Means, in their report of the 5th March last, say: "Our collectors have had under their control a gross revenue of 946,000,000, and our land receivers 107,000,000, making 1,053,000,000. They not only had control of this vast amount, but they were permitted to pay without warrant from the treasury, *and before the money passed out of their hands*, all the expenses of our custom-houses and land-offices and debentures, *which alone amounted to four or five millions annually, and sometimes more*."

Though we find some difficulty in reconciling this statement with the actual receipts and disbursements of the government as reported annually to Congress, and with the expenses of collection as discoverable from the sources of information which lie within our reach, without supposing greater losses in the transit of the public funds to the treasury than are stated to have occurred, it is probable that our difficulty arises from our limited means of research, and that the committee are substantially, if not literally correct.

The nine hundred and forty-six millions of revenue, raised from the customs, were levied upon foreign merchandise, received in exchange for domestic productions; for though the term *customs*, in financial language, embraces duties on tonnage, clearances, light-money, &c. &c., these are comparatively so insignificant, that they will not materially affect the estimate. Those who think differently, may allow for them the odd forty-six millions. Of the domestic productions given in exchange for the foreign merchandise, nearly three-fourths were of southern growth—we will say two-thirds, which we know, in the whole estimate, to be under the mark. Without disturbing the vexed question, "who pays the duties?" we may state then, what all will admit, that the government has been indebted to southern industry for six hundred and thirty millions of money. If the expenses of collecting one billion and fifty-three millions of revenue, were "from four to five millions annually, and sometimes more," it may safely be assumed, that the expenses of collecting the six hundred and thirty millions amounted to one million annually. Had the southern people, then, shipped their own produce to foreign markets, and brought the return cargoes to their own ports, they would have had eight and forty millions distributed among them since 1789, simply in the pay of their revenue officers. This would have gone into the pockets of individuals, to be sure; and so goes all that constitutes the wealth of a nation. *Here* would it have been received, and *here* expended. Insignificant as it may seem, while we are contemplating billions and hundreds of millions, when we reflect upon the influence which the comparatively trivial sum received by the states from the surplus revenue has had upon the southern states, we cannot doubt that its effects would have been most benignly felt. This sum, divided among the cities of Norfolk, Wilmington, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile and Orleans, would have quieted many a disturbed bosom in the trying reign of the protective system. Savannah's portion of it would have defrayed the whole expenses of the government of Georgia for more than thirty years; nor, it is believed, would the portions of the other cities have done less for their states. Whatever the sum may have been worth, we must be considered as having thrown it away ourselves. Let us at least remember, that if the tariff should ever be revived, (and hints to that effect have recently fallen from high authority on the floor of Congress,) a direct trade will in some measure mitigate its rigor; and thus far tend to the preservation of the Union.

If we suppose the value of the goods upon which the six hundred and thirty millions of duties were levied, to have been but four times the value of the duties, it amounted to $2,500,000,000. How were these goods brought to this country and distributed? The northern merchant has come hither and bought from the southern planter produce of equal value, abating from the price all the expenses, direct and incidental, of transportation. He has insured them in northern offices, and shipped them abroad in his own vessels—exchanged them at a small profit for foreign merchandise—brought it home—paid one-fourth its value to the government—added that amount and all the expenses of importation, and fifteen to twenty per cent. for his profits, to the price, and exposed it for sale. The southern merchant has now gone to him—lingered the summer through with him at a heavy expense—bought a portion of these goods—reshipped them in northern vessels to southern ports—added twenty-five per cent. more to the price, to cover his expenses and profits—and sold them to the southern planter. All the disbursements made in this process, save such as are made abroad, are made among northern men; all the profits, save the southern merchant's, are made by northern men; and the southern planter, who supplies nearly all the foreign goods of the country, gets his portion of them burdened with every expense that the government, merchant, insurer, seaman, wharfinger, drayman, boatman, and wagoner can pile upon them. His burdens of course, are needlessly increased, by the amount of the expenses incurred in landing the goods at northern ports, and bringing them thence to southern markets. Every item in the endless catalogue of charges, except the government dues, may be considered a voluntary tribute from the citizens of the South to their brethren of the North: for they would all have gone to our own people, had we done our own exporting and importing. Will the reader compute the amount of them, on twenty-five hundred millions' worth of goods, and make a fair allowance for the portion of them consumed at the South?

Our planters, not content with their portion of the tribute, crowd their plantations with cotton, corn, rice and tobacco, and then pay the southern merchant, to pay the northern merchant, to pay the northern farmer for the flour which they consume; and compel all their neighbors to do the like. In this way a goodly number of unascertainable millions more move annually from South to North. In September last, we had a painful exhibition of the fruits of our agricultural policy. In that month, a bale of cotton and a barrel of canal flour commanded the same price in Georgia. We were disposed to doubt this statement when we first heard it; but upon referring to the prices current in that month for the city of Augusta, where the one article uniformly stands at nearly the highest, and the other nearly the lowest prices in the state, we find actual sales of about ninety bales of the first, quoted at an average of 5 5-8 cents per pound; and in two instances, sales of very small lots, at 5 cents per pound, while quotations of flour, at wholesale prices, stood firmly at 12 and 13 dollars per barrel. We know of many sales, about this time, at 15 and of some at 16 dollars per barrel in the same city. At these rates, we could name a hundred places in Georgia, where northern flour is in constant use, and where a bale of the lowest priced cottons would not have purchased a barrel of flour. Here, to be sure, the opposite extremes of the two articles were brought together; but the force of the example is but little weakened when it informs us, that there was not probably a bale of uplands in the state, that would have purchased three barrels of flour.

To this head of voluntary tribute may be referred the millions expended annually by our people in visits of pleasure to the North. These are unobjectionable in themselves, and under different circumstances would be commendable; but when it is considered that they swell the streams of wealth which are constantly flowing from a waning to a growing people, they deserve our notice, if not our censure. There is a point in view, however, in which they assume an importance not to be overlooked. They distinctly mark a difference of habit between the northern and southern people, from which the first are yearly gainers, and last losers, to the amount of several millions. In the natural order of things, our northern brethren should spend twice as much with us in winter as we do with them in summer; for they double us in white population: but it may well be questioned, whether their disbursements in this way equal a third of ours. The main reason of the difference is, that they are a home-abiding, economical people; while we incline too much to the opposite traits of character. Hence their gains, which are not larger in wealth than in honor. Let us profit by their example.

Nor would it be out of place here to mention the indirect, consequential losses which we have sustained by our neglect of foreign trade. Without overstepping the bounds of reasonable conjecture, we could enlarge the number of these to a wearisome extent; but time will not permit us to recount them. Let us take a single example, deduced from history, speaking directly to our purpose. In 1835, the long-endured national debt was extinguished, after having absorbed from the treasury about four hundred and twenty-two millions of dollars. The larger portion of this sum was paid to citizens of the United States; of whom, those residing north of the Potomac were, to those residing south of it, in the ratio of 165 to 11; and those in Massachusetts, New-York and Pennsylvania, to those in all the other states, as 150 to 176. Whence, but from their commerce, did the northern states acquire the means of loaning so largely to the government? Whence, but from the same source, did three states acquire the power to loan thirteen times as much as all the southern states put together? And with the power to lend, was it no advantage to them to have been enabled to lend upon the best security in the world?

So much for our own voluntary self-impoverishment. A word or two upon those contributions which we have made to the fortunes of our northern brethren, and which may be denominated compulsory.

The actual disbursements of the general government have been about one billion of dollars, exclusive of the surplus revenue. The greater part of this immense sum was disbursed among the several states. A ratable distribution of this fund between the northern and northwestern, and southern and southwestern states, as they now stand, would have been *nearly* as follows:

According to whole population, as	7 to 5
" " white " "	7 to 3
" " representation "	5 to 3
" " area "	4 to 5

How have they actually been? Up to 1830, there had been expended in the several states and territories two hundred and eighteen millions of public money, in fortifications, light-houses, public debt, pensions and internal improvements; of which sum, one hundred and ninety-five millions were disbursed in the northern and northwestern states; and twenty-three millions in the southern and southwestern. The national debt constitutes by far the largest item in this account, and it was but equitable that this should be paid to the lenders in the proportions of their loans. But in the matter of internal improvements, the southern division should have received a ninth more than the northern. The disbursements under this head were—north of the Potomac, in round numbers, four millions seven hundred thousand; south of the Potomac, two hundred and sixty-seven thousand; or nearly 18 to 1.* Pensions 17 to 2; light-houses (consider our coast) 2 to 1; fortifications equal —but ever unequal afterwards, and never to be equal again. The expenditures on the Cumberland road alone, were about nine times the amount expended for internal improvements in all the southern and southwestern states together; and without that the proportion North and South was as 8 to 1.

But this gives us a very inadequate idea of the extent of the disbursements in the several states. It touches not the first cost, and the annual expenses of the national establishments, most of which are at the North; nor the pay of the officers, principal and subordinate, in the several departments of the government, most of whom are citizens of the North; nor the ten thousand other items of expense which go to make up the grand total of $1,000,000,000. Whoever will take the trouble to follow these expenditures through all their details for a year or two, will come to the conclusion, that of the whole sums disbursed among the states, little short of eight-tenths have gone north of the Potomac, or to citizens domiciled north of the Potomac. About seven hundred thousand dollars of the one billion disbursed, were raised from the customs—that is to say, from duties on foreign importations, two-thirds of which were received in exchange for southern productions. The southern states then have virtually put into the treasury four hundred and sixty-six millions of the seven hundred, and drawn out one hundred and forty. The northern states have put in two hundred and thirty-three millions, and drawn out five hundred and sixty—fractions rejected. The effect of these disbursements is like a shower of gold upon a people. They are far better. They clear rivers, improve harbors, and open roads and canals, which give permanent facilities to commerce. They plant national establishments, gather villages around them, and found other public works, through which there is a constant stream of treasure flowing from the government to the people in their vicinity. Suppose the general government should make Brunswick a naval depot; would it be a twelve-month before that place would become a busy, thriving city? And would it be longer before its influence would be felt through the whole state?

While the southern states were contributing so liberally to the support of the government, they suffered still heavier losses than any that we have mentioned, in the regular, progressive, and almost ruinous depreciation of their great staple. For about fifteen years, except during the frenzied excitement of 1825, it kept unremittingly on the decline; insomuch, that for six years preceding 1832, it did not average quite ten cents per pound at the places of shipment.† It has ever since, in spite of the disasters of this and the last year,

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* While the above was in the press, the appropriations of the last Congress for Internal Improvements appeared. They are as follows:

North and North-western States,	1,189,315
South and South-western States,	284,000
New-York alone,	358,449

† See Mr. Woodbury's Report on the Cotton Trade.

and of the increased production, averaged about thirteen cents a hundred miles in the interior of every cotton-growing state. That the Restrictive System, as it has been aptly termed, was the cause of its decline, no one, it is presumed, will now dispute. But who can compute the losses which we sustained from that system? The difference between the prices of the article in question, before and since 1832, is but a very poor measure of our losses upon it anterior to that period; because, from that date to the present, it has been materially affected by the tariff; and it will continue to be, even under the duties made permanent by the compromise act. But, by that measure, our losses amount to not less than fifty millions in the short space of six years.

The Restrictive System was not more oppressive to us than propitious to our northern brethren. It was the touch of Midas to their property, and the ablution of Midas to their streams. Through all its operations, it enriched them—in all its consequences, it profited them. With its other effects, it gave them the command of southern trade; and thus increased our dependence upon them, and multiplied our debts to them. Let us not be understood as mentioning these things in the spirit of complaint or disaffection but in confirmation of the positions which we assumed at the opening of our remarks. Indeed, the southern people now reap no small benefit from the measure which has been so favorable to their northern friends. It has enlarged the demand for their principal staple, and opened to them a home-market, where they can be supplied with many articles in daily use at the South, upon better terms than they are offered in any other market.

But, fellow-citizens, how trivial would all our other losses have seemed, had we only secured to ourselves the importer's profits! We have supposed the foreign importations to have equaled in value but four times the amount of the duties levied upon them. We know them to have been worth a hundred millions, and but a hundred millions more—a fact worthy of a passing notice; for as the duties were very low up to the year 1816, it proves that since that time, the Government must have absorbed little short of half the value of all the goods brought into the country. Ten per cent. upon the portion of those goods purchased with southern produce, would have placed at the command of our people all that could minister to taste or sense. But it is gone with the other millions that we have lost by our supineness; and it is only because a gracious Providence has blessed us with resources that never fell to the lot of nation before, that we have not long since had our energies awakened by the perils of utter destitution. But so essential have our staples become to the whole world, that we never want a market for them; and so abundant the crops, that we can *live* on their lowest prices, and grow rich in an instant, when they command the highest.

From this hasty review it appears, that under circumstances infinitely more adverse to a direct trade with foreign nations than those which now surround us, we not only carried on such a trade, but took the lead in it. We have seen that with the industry, enterprise and economy of our northern brethren, and with equal favor from the government, we must not only have far surpassed them in wealth, but that we must have been the most prosperous people on the globe. We have seen that our own improvidence, the shrewder policy of northern friends, and the unequal action of the government, have all conspired to bring upon us our present embarrassments. Not that they are the immediate cause, but that they have so far weakened us, and made us so completely dependent upon the people of the North for everything, that the least shock to commerce prostrates us, and the least pressure upon them is turned upon us with redoubled force. We have seen why it is that the one people has risen like the rocket, and the other has fallen like its stick. We have seen that their positions must have been reversed, if the southern people had maintained their foreign trade. The opportunity is now offered to them to resume it, and to reap the rich rewards from it that they have hitherto transferred to other hands. Fellow-citizens, will you not resume it? Everything now encourages you to do so. American commerce is almost released from its fetters; and your resources will enable you to control it. You are not wanting in means, in skill, in ports, or waters, to accomplish the great enterprise. The legislatures of your respective states have made easy the way, and safe the attempt, to accomplish it. They have authorized you to form associations for this purpose, in which you may invest what you please, without hazard of more than you invest. Your interests, social, pecuniary and political, are deeply involved in it. A single, bold, united, manly effort, on your part, and the thing is done. Every citizen must take an interest in it—every citizen, a part in it.

And while we are directing our united exertions to the great object, let us not forget the auxiliary duties which devolve upon us as individuals. Let us reform our habits of extravagance. Let us become an industrious, economical, and a domestic people: and what we practise ourselves, let us teach our children. Let us make more of them merchants—scientific, reputable, practical merchants. Let our planters reform their agricultural systems. Let them resolve to buy nothing that their farms can produce, and to sell breadstuffs under every season. By this policy they will not gain more in independence, than in wealth; for their cotton crops reduced one-fourth would command a higher price than they now do. Nature has practically demonstrated this truth to our planters, again and again; but they will not profit by her lessons. Never does she shorten their crops, that they are not more than compensated in the price; and yet they cannot be persuaded to shorten them themselves. In 1825, a rumor was spread, and generally believed, that the cotton crop on hand would not supply the demand by some fifty or hundred thousand bales; and immediately the article rose from twelve or thirteen cents to thirty. No class of the community are so deeply interested in a direct trade as they are. For the want of it, as we have seen, they lose in the price of all that they raise, and all that they consume.

But it has been said that we cannot carry on a trade with foreign nations, because we have not the requisite capital. That is to say, the people of the southern states, with the most ample resources that any people of equal numbers ever possessed, cannot do that which all nations have done, from the Phœnicians to the Texans. Have we less capital now than we had in 1769? Did the capital which made Virginia and South Carolina larger importers than all the northern states combined desert them immediately upon the adoption of the Federal Constitution, and flee to the northern states? But what is the capital that sustains the foreign commerce of the United States at this time? Cash? Bank-notes? Why, all the specie and bank-notes in circulation three years ago, between the St. Lawrence and the Sabine, would not have purchased the exports of 1836; and all the specie in Europe and the United States would not purchase the exports for six years to come, at that year's prices —a fact that seems to have been overlooked, when the cotton and specie traffic was so strongly recommended to us in by-gone days. And yet the exports of that year were bought and sold.

How was the operation effected? We will take a southern staple, for the sake of illustration, and a small part to represent the whole crop, and exhibit the process. The northern importer formed commercial connections at the South and in Liverpool. He ordered the southern house to lay in for him a thousand bales of cotton, and to draw on him for the price. The draft was drawn, and sold for southern bank-notes, to some one who wanted northern funds. The notes paid the planter for the cotton, who bought his supplies with them from the merchant, who returned them to the bank, where they remained ready to purchase as much more cotton. The cotton went on to the northern merchant, who shipped it to Liverpool, and upon the credit of it, drew a bill upon the Liverpool house, which he sold for northern bank-notes, and with them paid the southern draft. The Liverpool merchant turned the cotton into goods, shipped them to his correspondent at the North, drew a bill upon him, which he sold, and from the proceeds paid his acceptance. Or, he sold the cotton for cash, paid his acceptance, and procured the goods upon a credit, for the benefit of his American friend, who renewed the operation before the term of credit expired. There are variations in the process, which we have not time to notice. Sometimes it is conducted throughout by agents of foreign houses established in this country. This, we believe, is now the usual mode; and other modes are adopted, according to circumstances: but in this way, or some other, substantially the same, have all the productions of the country which have gone to foreign markets, been bought and sold. No money has come South, gone North, or crossed the Atlantic. The traffic has been conducted entirely upon credit. We have only, therefore, to clothe our merchants with the same credit that the northern importer has, to enable them to perform the same office. How is this to be done? Simply by giving them the control of as much property as the northern importer possesses. It matters not what kind of property you give them, provided it equals his in value. His property is his capital; it consists of houses, ships, and stocks of different kinds. He never barters these for goods; but the foreign merchant, knowing that he has them, and being anxious to dispose of his own merchandise, very readily credits him upon the strength of his resources. But who supposes that this kind of capital is essential to foreign trade? If the planters of the South would place ten bales in the hundred of their next year's cotton crop in the hands of merchants in the six principal seaports, the merchants in each city would have a capital of more than half a million; quite as good in all respects as any merchant in the Union possesses of so great a value. Nay, far better; for their capital would enter into their trade—would go to Europe possessing all the properties of coin for commercial purposes—would itself establish the owners' credit there—or rather set all credit at defiance, and convert their traffic into a cash business. Does the world produce such a capital for foreign commerce? Indeed, almost all the capital of the country has to be resolved into this, before it is of any value to trade upon abroad.

The next best capital to cotton is money; and this is at the command of the southern people, in any quantity that the most active commerce may require. When, therefore, we are taunted by northern paragraphists, with—"plantations and negroes will not be easily bartered for merchandise in Europe," we excuse the insult in charity to the ignorance which it betrays; and in farther indulgence, we reply, "quite as easily as Wall-street buildings, and Wall-street stocks. The difference between the two kinds of property is, that the one produces that which will buy goods in Europe, and the other does not."

We most earnestly invite the attention of the southern people to this great interest. We beg them to promote it, by availing themselves of the privileges which the legislatures of their respective states have offered to them. We feel well assured that all who make investments in the importing business will reap large profits from it. Managed with common prudence, it must be profitable. Two gentlemen of Savannah, long practised in mercantile business, and of large resources, proposed forming a copartnership in the importing trade, if they could meet with proper encouragement, upon these terms: that the country merchants who might join the association, should be supplied with their goods at cost and charges; and that the firm would look to sales to disinterested individuals for its profits. Under such an arrangement the country merchants would only have to hand in their orders, receive their supplies in a month or two, direct from the factories, and at the lowest rates, and at the same time be drawing a handsome interest upon the capital invested. What country merchant would refuse to become a partner in such an establishment? But we take higher ground than mere pecuniary interest. We address ourselves to the patriotism of the southern people, to their pride of character, to their regard for the rising race, to their love of independence—and by all these considerations, we solicit them to put at *hazard* something for the recovery of our lost commerce. We believe that a gratuitous contribution to this object, of ten per cent. from a year's income of every citizen of the South, would in the end be to all the best investment that they ever made. We urge upon the citizens of the southern and southwestern states to send representatives to the convention to be held in Augusta in October next, to devise means of accomplishing our all-important object. The advantages of the former meetings have been already most signally felt. They have aroused a spirit of inquiry into this matter, which profoundly instructs, while it greatly amazes us. They have produced concert of action and harmony of feeling in the southern states. By one impulse, they have moved all the legislative bodies of the South to our assistance. They have awakened active exertions in the people of several states, to give their states the lead in the great enterprise. So much have they done; and more will they doubtless do, as their numbers increase. We promise ourselves from them united counsel and a mighty effort in pushing on our great works of internal improvement. From all our seaports, are railways extending in every direction over the broad area of our fertile country—admirable precursors of our admirable design. Future conventions will consider how these may be converted into bonds of union—how they may be combined and extended for the common good. How strongly do they recommend to the people of the South unusual and untiring exertions to reclaim their lost commerce! In eight and forty hours, they will lay the planters' produce upon the shores of the Atlantic—in as many hours more, they will lay the proceeds of it at the foot of mountains. Availing ourselves of our own ports, of our own ships, and of the agency which makes our roads so useful, we may in twenty days place our staples in Europe; and in as many more, receive the avails of them at our own doors. Why, with these advantages before us, should we send our produce a coastwise voyage of a thousand miles; and then travel as far ourselves, to gather a small part of its returns? Since our attention has been directed to this subject, nothing amazes us more, than that it should have been reserved for the year 1836, and for a gentleman in a small town two hundred miles in the interior of Georgia, to arouse the people of the South to a sense of the losses which they were sustaining, and the advantages they were losing, by their neglect of a direct trade with foreign nations. If we improve the hint which that gentleman has dropped, as we should, we will have conferred a favor upon the southern states which they can never over-appreciate, or duly reward.

The Committee deem it unnecessary and inexpedient to enlarge upon the probable benefits that would result from the accomplishment of our purpose. They may be inferred from the retrospect which we have taken.

If the reader require better evidence than this, let him look to the state that has improved the advantages which we have neglected. In 1836, "New-York imported six times the amount of her exports, while the southern and southwestern states imported little more than one-fourth of theirs." Which is in the most prosperous condition? Could we divide between our southern seaports but a fourth of the commerce of the chief city of the Empire State, it would diffuse new life and activity through all the states in which those seaports are located. The Committee on Ways and Means before quoted, say, "the Collector of the City of New-York received in 1836, at the custom-houses, FIVE MILLIONS OF DOLLARS." We know, that in 1833, the officers in pay of the government, who were employed in those "custom-houses," were considerably the rise of three hundred, independent of their private assistants. In 1836, they probably all together amounted to five or six hundred. A village population of collectors, with a million per annum in their pockets, reserved mainly from the proceeds of southern industry! Who can contemplate a city enjoying such a commerce, without the liveliest admiration! To what an interesting train of reflections does it give rise! What throngs of merchants are gathered there, to bear her stores through all the length and breadth of the great republic! How vast the multitude of laborers deriving an easy subsistence, from bearing her merchandise from ship to store, and from store to ship again!

How countless the number of artisans, made busy by her shipping—of clerks, in honorable service, and valuable schooling in every branch of trade—of public officers, drawn thither by her commerce, and feeding on its fruits! While over all, and moving all, and richer than all, the importer presides. He it is, who gives life and spirit and activity to the busy mart. His tribute is fifteen millions per annum levied upon as many of his countrymen. It is to raise your portion of this tribute, fellow-citizens, that you are now exchanging redeemable for unredeemable notes, and giving large odds for the privilege—that you are giving articles, prized by all the world, for paper which, but for your voluntary servitude, would be as worthless to you as the refuse of which it is made—that you are submitting to daily sacrifices in a thousand forms, and fearfully large, to raise funds, the use of which you had never known, had you known how to use your own resources—that you are burdened with debt, and your peace disturbed by the still heavier burdens which it threatens to bring upon you. It was to visit this lordling's domain, ride abroad in his ships, or draw a mite from his stores, that many a worthy son of the South has found a grave in the waters of the Atlantic; and yet, fellow-citizens, he is almost as completely in your power as the nursling is in its mother's. You hold the element from which he derives his strength, and you have only to withdraw it to make him as subservient to you as you now are to him. You have but to speak the word, and his empire is transferred to your own soil, and his sovereignty to the sons of that soil.

Were this done, there would be an end to the unequal barter of which we have spoken—the doleful cry of northern funds would be hushed—the speculations upon southern distress would cease—the disorders of the currency would be healed—the relation of the commercial agents would be changed. They would be acquaintances and friends, identical in feeling and identical in interest; enjoying mutual confidence and interchanging mutual favors. It would be their interest and their pleasure to sustain each other in times of distress. Debtors would not be summoned two hundred miles from home to answer the demands of their creditors; nor to their other burdens, would be added the onerous costs of the federal judicatories. The fountain and the streams of commerce, lying all within our own land, would enrich it to an extent that none can foresee. Our works of internal improvement would receive a new and ever-accelerating impetus—our drooping cities would be revived—our creeping commerce winged; and all the blessings, physical, moral and intellectual, which invariably accompany affluence and independence, would be ours. Fellow-citizens, shall they be ours? Or is this great enterprise in which our honor, our interest, our safety, our all, is involved, to end in a few convulsive efforts, and a few bootless appeals?

ART. VI.—FOREIGN TRADE OF VIRGINIA AND THE SOUTH.*

THE COMMERCIAL FUTURE OF VIRGINIA—CITIES OF THE CHESAPEAKE—SOUTHERN STEAM LINES, ETC.

1. The advantages of the geographical position of Virginia.
2. The probability that Virginia can secure the export and import trade of the interior.

The Chesapeake Bay, entitled, from its climate and commercial advantages, to be called the American Adriatic, extends from the latitude of 36° 50′ more than two hundred miles to the north. It varies from 10 to 20 miles in width, affords generally about nine fathoms of water, and is navigable at all seasons for vessels of any class whatsoever. It is free from ice and safe from storms. It receives the commerce of those important tributaries, the Susquehanna, the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road, the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, the Rappahannock, York and James and Roanoke Rivers, and the Albemarle Sound. It is the medium of importation and exportation for the tide-water cities of Baltimore, Washington, Georgetown, Alexandria, Fredericksburg, Richmond, Petersburg, Portsmouth and Norfolk—these cities have an aggregate commercial population of more than 300,000. It receives, or ought to receive, the productions of about 80,000 square miles, its legitimate territory, besides what it may hereafter obtain by communications with the interior. The Chesapeake has a single inlet, between Cape Henry, in lat. 37°, and Cape

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* For other interesting papers upon Southern Foreign Trade, Steamships, &c., see our work, Industrial Resources, etc., vol. iii.

Charles in lat. 37° 12'. The powerful fortification of Point Comfort commands this inlet, and protects its commerce. Together with Fortress Monroe, which is situated less than a mile to the south, it commands the entrance of Hampton Roads, an anchorage perfectly safe from enemies or elements. Within 15 miles of this inlet, roads and fortress, is situated the city of Norfolk; which, from its excellent harborage and accessibility, its salubrity of climate, its cheapness and abundance of supplies, can sustain as heavy a commercial population, and can afford as cheap a rate of factorage to the commerce of the interior, as any other Atlantic city whatever. So superior are the natural advantages of this city, that more than 70 years since it was regarded as "the emporium of the Chesapeake and its waters," whilst secondary to this place were "Richmond, Petersburg, Baltimore," and other towns. Perhaps, with a prophetic distrust of the enterprise of his countrymen, the writer added, "accidental circumstances may, however, control the indications of nature."*

They have certainly done so. An estuary, extending more than 200 miles parallel with the Atlantic coast, its only communication with the ocean being in the immediate vicinage of a port possessing such superior advantages, it follows that all the commerce brought from the interior by artificial lines of transportation, which terminate at every point upon the Chesapeake, must seek the immediate vicinage of this port for exportation.

Upon the indisputable proposition that artificial facilities of transportation being equal, commerce will prefer the most direct, the line of rail-road projected by Virginia from the port of Norfolk, running nearly parallel with her southern boundary, until it strikes the Mississippi at Memphis, with another line, extending to the Ohio River, will afford the most direct line of transit for the commerce of an extensive region to the ocean. The junction of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers is upon the same parallel of latitude with the Capes of Virginia. This then is the base of transportation of the commerce destined to exportation from the Chesapeake. The simplest triangulation of the trade, upon the principle affirmed, will show that any line deflecting from this base, and striking the Chesapeake at any point north of the outlet, must involve the disadvantage of lengthened distance and increased time.

The connections with the interior, which have been referred to, will be found to afford lighter grades, cheaper construction, greater amount and variety of trade, than any transmontane rail-road lines to the north of them. The commerce of the Chesapeake having been shown to the port of Norfolk,† it is now proper to examine what amount of commerce from the interior will seek the Chesapeake for exportation.

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* Mr. Jefferson.

† It is proper to state that Norfolk is used for the Virginia cities generally. All of them, by their connections, are expected to participate in the export and import trade referred to.

The natural and original line of transportation from the valleys of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers, to the Atlantic cities of the Union and to Europe, was the river and coast navigation. This, although so circuitous and tedious as to involve an average voyage of nearly 4,000 miles, and three months, from the point of departure to its parallel upon the Atlantic, was yet more cheap and rapid than the wagonage of the whole interior product and supply, across the intervening country to the ocean. The whole of this vast commerce was compelled to risk the snags of the Mississippi, the climatic injuries of New-Orleans and the Gulf, to double the Cape and thread the treacherous reefs of Florida, and to follow the dangerous and inhospitable coast of the Carolinas. This commerce was compelled, almost, to circumnavigate the Atlantic States, to reach any eastern port in the Union.

But the construction of new and improved methods of direct communication has demonstrated, that commerce will no longer tolerate the delay, injury and expense of this circuit; but it will seek its domestic or foreign market by the shortest and cheapest lines. The commerce of the world will not double Cape Horn, if it can cross at Panama, nor go around Good Hope, if the Mediterranean and Red Sea can be connected.

In considering the probability that the commerce from the states of Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Northern Alabama, Northern Mississippi and Virginia, will seek an outlet by artificial lines of transportation, directly across to the Atlantic, I do not affirm that parallel lines of natural and of artificial transportation, equal in length, are equal in the cost of transportation. The untaxed current of a navigable stream affords the cheapest rate of transportation known. But the cost of transportation is compounded of distance, time, insurance, and the amount of commerce; upon this principle, artificial lines of direct transit have advantages that are rapidly securing the transportation of the most valuable commerce between the producing regions of the interior and the points of consumption or of exportation.

It is not necessary to affirm any normal rule of comparison between natural and artificial lines of transportation, but the following approximates sufficiently near, perhaps, to establish the proposition for which I am contending. An eminent engineer says: "If transportation be four times as much on a rail-road as on a river, general trade will follow the river, unless its winding amount to a mileage quadruple that of the rail-road." This rule has been verified by a comparison of average freights on the rail-road and on the Mississippi River. The ratio may therefore be safely fixed at four to one, though it would of course depend upon the amount of commerce, rate of insurance and time, as well as the comparative length of the competing lines. But the rail-roads will have a monopoly of the mail, merchandise and travel. At once proprietors of the road, and common carriers of the commerce, their administration will possess a unity and system which no other method of transportation can. With these advantages, a tariff of charges may be arranged which will discriminate in favor of the freights on the more important staples of agricultural productions, and thus the terminal cities of the rail-roads will secure a factorage, which will amply indemnify them for the reduction of freights upon the favored articles—the market value and dividends of the stocks being maintained by the peculiar sources of income which have been referred to. The influence of this important advantage is shown in the transportation of flour from Albany to Boston, and of coal and flour to Baltimore; the rail-roads in both cases crossing water lines which can carry either articles *per se* at a lower rate than would remunerate the rail-road—the indemnity of the roads being in both cases the incidental advantage resulting from the flour and coal trade.

We may then safely suppose that a rail-road not exceeding 800 miles in length, connecting the mouth of the Ohio and Mississippi with the port of Norfolk, with gradients not exceeding sixty feet, against the heavy trade, can successfully compete for the export of produce and the import of merchandise, with the river and coastwise shipment, which I have more particularly described.

This is an extreme application of the principle laid down as ultimately to govern the commercial connection of the interior with the Atlantic ports. Nor is its demonstration indispensable to the development of a sufficient commercial interest in Virginia for the great purposes which have been indicated. The legitimate trade area of the lines of rail-road referred to, will be adequate even without that trade which may be taken from the Mississippi itself. But that the commerce of the Ohio and Upper Mississippi will not continue to double the Cape of Florida, is proven by the success of the Northern Atlantic cities, which have borne off much from the Upper Ohio and Mississippi, whilst Charleston, Savannah and Mobile, have become formidable competitors with New-Orleans for the trade of the Middle Mississippi; *Virginia being almost the only Atlantic state which has not some rail-road connection with the interior.*

But any doubt of the ultimate tendency of trade is dispelled by the admission and action of the city of New-Orleans. It will be remembered that the purchase by that city of the charter of the Tehuantepec Rail-road, was based upon the apprehended loss of the upper trade. This, under the combined competition of the Eastern Atlantic cities, was being drawn off from its natural outlet—the mouth of the Mississippi. The merchants of New-Orleans were desirous to open a direct communication across the Gulf and Isthmus, with the Pacific coast; hence they engaged in the construction of the rail-road. This will effect a saving over the Panama crossing of more than 1,500 miles. New-Orleans will thus be placed upon the line of travel and commerce between the Eastern cities of the United States, the Pacific coast, and the ports of Asia. She will be the emporium of the Gulf trade; but that she expects to lose and is preparing for the loss of much of the commerce legitimately her own; that she believes the line of commerce will be established directly *across* the Atlantic states, will appear from the proof which follows. In the February number of the Commercial Review is published a paper headed, "Thoughts on a Rail-road System for New-Orleans, by Thos. B. Hewson, Esq., Civil Engineer," we here find the assertion:

"*That the present* (trade) *basin of New-Orleans is being acted on by the rail-roads of all the cities of the seaboard from New-York to Mobile.* South of the Ohio the roads of Charleston are at work, and those of Mobile will soon be in operation. Though the domain of New-Orleans is thus parceled out amongst rivals, she yet looks on with as much indifference as though her commercial greatness were inalienable."

Subsequently, Mr. Hewson surrenders entirely the trade of the Upper Ohio. He says:

"The rail-roads of New-York hold Cincinnati at present under their influence, and operating from that point, (Cincinnati,) New-York is sapping the prosperity of Louisville."

He seems to regard Memphis as the diaphragm of the Mississippi; above that point the territory is scarcely debatable: its product must seek exportation across the Atlantic states. New-Orleans may maintain herself against her Atlantic rival by securing the lower trade; yet, to do this, she is advised to construct a system of rail-roads in aid of the Mississippi. The positions of the able and elaborate article referred to may be thus condensed:

1. The commerce of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers may be transported *across* the Atlantic states and exported from the Atlantic cities.

2. The trade of the Upper Ohio and Mississippi has been thus reversed, and is now exported chiefly from Boston, New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore.

3. New-Orleans is restricted to the commerce of the Lower Mississippi, and Charleston, Savannah and Mobile are competing for that.

4. New-Orleans must adopt the rail-road system to strengthen her position. The arguments and admonitions of Mr. Hewson are indorsed by the highest authority. De Bow's Review adds, editorially:

"We believe that the suggestions of Mr. Hewson's communication will, if adopted, be worth more to New-Orleans than the discovery of the mines of California to the American people; and we call upon the press in the city, and out of it, to republish the article, and to urge its subject unceasingly upon their readers. The author has shown, with a few bold strokes, the eminently dangerous position which New-Orleans now occupies with reference to western commerce, and the almost certainty of a speedy decadence of her prosperity, already begun, unless the tocsin be sounded, and our citizens are aroused from their sleep of death. Up! up! ye men of capital; ye men of influence and enterprise; for it is no *common* danger that menaces. The hour is even *now.* Though the remote contingency of Tehuantepec be achieved, the summer for us is nearly past—the harvest ended—*we are not saved!*"

"Well may Mr. Hewson poetically declare that 'New-Orleans is sleeping in purple pomp, with the deadly aspic at her bosom.'"

I consider, so far as the testimony of interested witnesses and the existence of indisputable facts are concerned, the proposition that the internal trade will prefer a direct transit, is established. The competition amongst the Atlantic ports for this trade will be ultimately determined: 1st. By their relative distances from the interior. 2d. By the relative value and amount of the trade and its appropriate travel. 3d. By the relative cost of the artificial lines.

We may safely affirm, from a comparison of these requisites, that a line drawn from Louisville, or Memphis, to Norfolk, will be the preferred line of commerce, because it comprehends a trade area of the richest and most varied character. It will be of cheaper construction, because it will cross the Blue Ridge, Alleghany and Cumberland Mountains without a tunnel, and with no grades of more than sixty feet to the mile; it will be made with slave-labor, and with western provisions; it offers no climatic obstructions at any season, but passes through temperate and healthful latitudes. If I have been successful in demonstrating a direct commerce between the interior and the Atlantic cities, it will be necessary to prove that the share of that commerce, appropriate to the cities of Virginia, will be sufficient to sustain a line of steamers from Norfolk to Europe.

No one of the Atlantic cities can expect more than to secure the exportation and importation of a trade area appropriate to its position. To realize the anticipated course of commerce we should arrange the great producing region of the West into distinct geographical divisions; each of these divisions will have its lines of artificial transportation, each of which will strike some one of the Atlantic cities of the Union, and all of which will converge upon the ultimate European markets for which their trade is intended.

The immense extent of this producing region, extending through twenty degrees of latitude, comprehending more than half the states of the Union, will prove that any one of the geographical subdivisions referred to, will be adequate to sustain the Atlantic city, or system of cities, appropriate to its course of trade. The northwestern states will, of course, pursue their present lines of transportation; the southern states will export through Charleston, Mobile, Savannah and New-Orleans. The western and southwestern states must trade directly through the port of Norfolk, because it lies directly upon their path to the ocean, and to the market cities of the world.

We then claim specifically the trade of Kentucky, Tennessee, North Alabama and Mississippi, and Virginia, with much of the trade which is collected at the interior cities of Cincinnati, Louisville, Nashville and Memphis.

I do not pause to estimate the value of this trade; it will be sufficient to prove to the most incredulous, our capacity to establish a commerce. But the support of the enterprise which you propose to establish, depends more upon travel, the transportation of merchandise and the remittance of specie, than upon the exportation of the heavy agricultural staples of the interior.

The line of national and international communication, projected and in progress between Virginia and New-Orleans, has been proven to be part of a great line of travel between the eastern Atlantic cities of the Union, the great southwestern city of New-Orleans, and the proposed crossing by rail-road at the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. That some crossing of the Isthmus of Central America will at present be preferred to the rail-roads wildly projected to cross from Memphis, St. Louis and the lakes, to the coast of Oregon and California, there can be no doubt. There are so many obstacles to a rail-road communication through that vast and unsettled country, that travelers would be unwilling to embark upon a car which might be arrested by flood, fire or savages, in the midst of some boundless prairie, or upon the borders of some impassable swamp. Travel, munitions of war, the mail and specie must seek, for a great length of time, some safer line of transportation. For the trade of Asia the competition would be hopeless. No calculation has offered freights from Asia across the continent of North America at less than $65 per ton, whilst the current freight around Cape Horn is about $22. No difference of speed would justify such a difference of freight upon heavy articles. Russia could, with the free navigation of the Amur, and her line of rail-road now under construction, transport the China trade to Europe by a shorter overland route than that projected across the continent of North America, saving entirely the navigation across the Pacific and Atlantic oceans. The projected lines of rail-road and canal communications through Central America, will unite the advantages of cheap freights and rapid transportation in a sufficient degree to ensure the trade and travel communication between Asia and the United States, possibly between Asia and Europe. I may only advert then to the prospect of being upon the presumed line of travel and commercial intercourse between the United States and the 500,000,000 of people in Asia, with whom we are taught to anticipate a commerce.* We may only advert to the assertion made by highly competent authority,† that the teas alone of China exported to the United States annually amount to $20,000,000, whilst the foreign commerce with the Oriental nations is estimated at $200,000,000 annually.

If, however, we confine our anticipations to the mere transportation of the valuable articles of gold, silver, teas, and silks, which we may expect, together with the travel and other accessories intended for American consumption, we must be satisfied that the lines of Virginia rail-road, comprising sections of the most direct line of communication, to which I have adverted, must afford great advantages in building up a foreign commerce, and sustaining a line of ocean steamers. We may note, incidentally, that in regard to tea, an article of prime commerce between Asia and Europe:

"It is said, the finest descriptions do not reach England; the Mandarins pay very high prices for those teas, and their flavor is so delicate that they would not bear four or five months' sweating in the hold of a ship. Many of the finest teas, drunk in China, would not bear this hot and humid atmosphere. The teas conveyed to Europe by sea require to be dried and fired to a degree which must injure their quality."* We may, therefore, fairly anticipate a large share of the transportation of this important article of Asiatic trade from the completed connection between the eastern cities of the Union and the coast of Asia.

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* Mr. Palmer's letter to Mr. Clayton, and Mr. Walker's report.

† Tea and the Tea-trade, by G. Nye, Esq., of Canton.

The varied resources of these lines, to which I have referred, will enable the city of Norfolk to compete with the southern ports of Charleston and Savannah. Although these cities lie somewhat nearer to the trade-area of the southwest, the saving of coastwise shipment, effected by direct transit, whether the cargo is destined to one of the eastern cities, or the great markets of northern Europe, will give the city of Norfolk immense advantages.

I have thus endeavoured to prove, that Virginia possesses a geographical position which will, upon the completion of the great enterprises in which she is now engaged, ensure her the materials of an important commerce.

I have endeavored, moreover, to prove, that her railroad system will, with its connections, afford the most direct line of communication between New-York and New-Orleans, and thus with our Pacific possessions, and with the coast of Asia.

With these materials of trade and travel, it will not be difficult to establish a line of steamers to Europe.

In considering a subject upon which the commercial independence of Virginia so much depends, it is, of course, important to act with circumspection, and to do nothing which may involve the delay or disappointment of our purpose. The measure requires enterprise, capital, and perseverance; it depends upon the successful development of the materials of domestic and foreign commerce. It will require the earnest co-operation of the various cities interested. It has been the purpose of this address to prove that all these elements exist and may be commanded. But it is important to preserve the confidence of the world, by the deliberate energy of our action. Precipitation is as dangerous as delay. Let us then examine the most efficient method of organizing the proposed enterprise.

The original cost of a line of ocean steamers is very great, but it bears small proportion to their annual working expenses and repairs. They are compelled to employ so much of their space and tonnage in carrying fuel that they cannot, of course, compete with sail vessels for the transportation of heavy and cheap articles of commerce. They must be confined principally to the transportation of merchandise, passengers, the mail, and specie.

Since the commerce of the interior, due to the Chesapeake, will be distributed amongst its cities, it is plain that a union of these cities can alone maintain a line of ocean steamers. Any one of these cities aspiring to be the terminus of such a line must come in competition with Boston, New-York, and Philadelphia; and although state pride and sectional jealousy may, for a time, support such an enterprise, even at a loss, yet the return of national harmony, and the steady attraction of interest, will ultimately prevail, and trade will revert to those points to which it has been accustomed.

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* Tea and Tea-trade, New-York, 1850.

If Richmond, or any river city of the Chesapeake, should engage alone in the undertaking, the voyage by steamer would be so much lengthened in time and distance, that the travel, coming from the south, would take a northern line, upon which the ocean steaming would be less. The great problem with the traveler is to diminish the ocean steaming, because of the superior speed and safety of steaming by land. Hence the success of the Boston lines, and hence the proposal to extend a rail-road to points in Upper Canada, from which the passage across the ocean will be reduced to about 2,000 miles. With this preference for land over ocean or river steaming, it is not probable that any one city can sustain alone a line of steamers. The same difficulty will present itself to any attempt on the part of Baltimore to establish an independent line. The traveler intending to cross the Atlantic would naturally prefer going from Baltimore, or New-York, or Philadelphia, to running down to the outlet of the Chesapeake—nearly two hundred miles out of a direct course—and then to return to the direct line of transit from Baltimore to the port of his destination.

It is evidently as impossible that Baltimore can work a line of steamers to Europe under such geographical disadvantages, as that Richmond, Petersburg, or Alexandria, can do so.

If, however, the cities of the Chesapeake shall, by common consent, make Norfolk the terminus of the proposed line, so that, as to the southern transatlantic travel, advantages of time and distance would be equal, with the somewhat superior comfort and safety of a southern over a northern passage across the Atlantic, there can be no doubt that such a line would be perfectly successful; each city would make its own connections by bay or river steamers, and the common steam line from Norfolk would make a time and afford a rate of freight, comparing favorably as to the southern travel, at least with any lines north of it. Each city, then, contributing its patronage of merchandise and remittance, the lines of communication with the interior, to which we have adverted, would cut off the transatlantic travel going north, because, to a traveler crossing the latitude of Norfolk, the inducements which have been mentioned would be sufficient to determine him in its favor. But, if the traveler crosses the latitude of Norfolk, and goes north as far as Baltimore, the tendency will be to go direct to Philadelphia, New-York, or Boston, for a steamer. Indeed, as to Baltimore, a passenger coming from the south, upon the Portsmouth road, might go up the bay to Baltimore in one day, and come down the bay the next, on his way to Europe; he would naturally prefer taking a steamer direct from Norfolk. It may be said that lines from these cities may touch at Norfolk, but travelers will prefer seeking the terminus of a line for the superior certainty. There may be, then, such a combination of the importing interests of the several cities, trading through a common outlet, as will maintain a line of ocean steamers. But there must be perfect harmony and earnest co-operation amongst them.

It is now proper to consider the best method of organizing such an enterprise. There are now pending, before the Legislature of Virginia, several propositions for the establishment of a line of steamers. They are all, however, referable to distinct principles of organization. They propose:

1. A loan of state credit to individuals, with a lien upon the stock insured and other security.

2. A joint-stock association to the capital stock of individuals and corporations, which shall subscribe two-fifths, and the state three-fifths.

3. A joint-stock association to which the cities of Virginia are authorized to subscribe in their corporate capacities, and an obligation is given on the part of the state to loan a given amount upon sufficient security.

These proposals are all based upon a capital of one or one and a half million of dollars. In the first proposal it may be objected that the loan of state credit to one or more individuals will not bring to the enterprise that extended and combined influence necessary to sustain so important an enterprise.

The proposed lien is moreover nominal, because it is based principally upon the investment of the state loan.

The second proposal is objectionable in this, that the state becomes a partner in a joint-stock scheme, the success of which is doubtful, whilst the expenses of working the line are certain. The state may thus become implicated in an adventure from which great loss may result, and thus the whole system of direct trade may be discouraged and rendered unpopular.

The third proposal is free from the objections of the two others. A union of the cities and interior towns of Virginia, as stockholders in a great enterprise of this character, will interest every citizen of those towns to contribute as much as possible to its success.

In any subsequent application to the Federal Government for mail pay, a political influence diffused throughout the state will do more than any individual influence could effect. The loan of money by the state would not be so large as under the first, and if it should result in a partial or total loss, it will be set down to a just effort to establish for ourselves a commercial independence.

There can be no obstacle to the success of the last proposition, provided it combines the cordial co-operation of the cities of the Chesapeake, the city of Baltimore, of course, inclusive. It may be organized at present, under some disadvantages, owing to the incomplete condition of the rail-roads to the interior, destined to act as feeders; and indeed constituting sections of the same great enterprise. But by the time that the plan can be well organized, the stock taken, and the steamers built, there will be an interest and a patronage adequate to establish and sustain the line permanently.

In this address upon the advantages of the commercial position of Virginia, I have intentionally omitted those statistical details, which might have been employed to verify many of the positions I have assumed, that the productions of the interior, and the inte course existing and anticipated between the interior and the sea-board, will be adequate to any commercial objects which we may have in view. These detailed proofs have been omitted, because they are accessible to all. So with the time and distances upon competing routes. They have been affirmed from accurate admeasurement, and could, if necessary, be verified. The time, rates of freight, and rates of insurance upon the river, cape and coast line, might have been compared, in detail, with the average rate of freight across the Atlantic states; but I have preferred to take the successful result of experiment and admission. It will be found that the principles laid down are in accordance with the operations of existing lines of commerce, and that they will justify the important enterprise of attracting to the ports of Virginia a large share of the internal trade, and of establishing a line of ocean steamers to Europe, without which, indeed, such an enterprise would be incomplete. With the employment of the physical means of acquiring political power which we possess, and by maintaining, in equality and justice, the invaluable form of Federal Government which unites and preserves us, there can be no doubt that Virginia will be as successful in establishing, and maintaining her "commercial independence," as she has been in securing for herself the blessings of civil and religious freedom, which she has proven herself so competent to appreciate and so well able to preserve.

ART. VII.—CONSTITUENTS OF THE SUGAR-CANE JUICE.

Green Fecula, so called in cane-juice, consists of oval vesicles of very variable form and size, full of green globules, whose office appears to be to afford nourishment to the buds or eyes of the plant during the progress of germination. In certain stages of the canes' growth, and under peculiar circumstances, this fecula abounds, imparting to the cane-juice a very green tint. Mere boiling does not appear to deprive these vesicles of their green matter; but the application of various substances has that effect.

Heat produces an expansion of the vesicles, which causes it readily to rise to the surface, together with the ligneous and glutinous textures contained in the juice, in the form of scum.

Lime combines with green fecula and causes a subsidence, which usually takes place simultaneous with the gummy and glutinous coagula. All fleshy plants furnish a large quantity of green fecula, by mechanically breaking down their cellular tissue, as is done in crushing canes.

Green coloring matter, (chlorophyle,) green wax, sometimes termed extractive matter, is but a variety of the same genus as the above (green fecula). It has been classed by some among the resins, and by others with the fatty matters; but established facts prove it to be in reality a variety of wax. The coloring matter appears to be distinct from the waxy matter with which it is associated, as the greater number of re-agents act on the one without in any way affecting the other.

This substance varies in color according to the degree of maturity and perfection to which the plant, whence it is derived, has arrived; thus we see it varying from a deep green, through the several shades, until it terminates in a yellow color. The coloring principle would seem to be due to the presence and action of ammonia in combination with manganese or iron.

Those coloring matters commonly called extractive matters, are generally nothing else than more or less complicated mixtures of various modifications, as the green coloring matter with some substance, either fatty or albuminous.*

Heat has the effect of keeping these matter dispersed through the liquor; but lime-water tends to unite and harden them, so that a large portion of them is taken off with the scum.

Alumina combines with coloring matter, and forms a precipitate.

Gum, as existing in expressed cane-juice, is in the form of mucilage, and results from the presence of the glutinous and woody textures with which it is intermixed; thus, in consequence of the crushing and complete breaking down which the canes undergo in passing through the mill, a portion of the gluten and of the debris of the woody textures, are mechanically incorporated with the gummy matter, altogether forming a mucilaginous mixture. Alcohol, acids, and alkalies coagulate gummy matter; and sulphuric acid has the property of converting it into sugar.

Saline matters, present in cane-juice, depend very much on the soil on which the canes are grown; as, for instance, in the low alluvial soils of Demerara, Louisiana, the Sonderbunds (below Calcutta), and Province Wellesley, canes often imbibe so much saline matter from the soil, that the sugar made from them may be said to be in a constant state of deliquescence.

The analysis of the juice of canes grown in Louisiana shows the quantities in which they may be contained; but in the Sonderbunds, near Calcutta, and the Province Wellesley, the juice is often even much more affected.

The cultivation of the cane had to be entirely relinquished in the former of the two places on this account; and the sugar sent home from the latter has in many instances been so extremely deliquescent as to occasion very extensive loss.

Soils manured with wood-ashes in excess produce the same pernicious results, from the saline matters they furnish to the cane plants. The chlorides of sodium and potassium, sulphates of potash, &c., are amongst the chief which exercise so pernicious an influence on cane-sugar.

Peligot says that one part of the chloride of sodium will combine with nearly six times its bulk of sugar, forming a deliquescent compound, which is capable of liquefying another portion of sugar, equal to itself in bulk; and from my own observation, I believe this deliquescence to continue, until the whole mass of sugar is decomposed. It is stated on authority, that such saline matters once present in cane-juice cannot be got rid of by any means; and I believe that this is so far correct in regard to actual practice on a large scale; but in the laboratory of the chemist, I do not see that so great a difficulty exists; for we know that hydrochloric and muriatic acids, and chloride of sodium, are powerfully acted on even by a very small quantity of nitrate of silver. In the case of chloride of sodium being present in any liquid, on nitrate of silver being added, inert chloride of silver is immediately precipitated.†

Dr. Ure says, "nitrate of silver is such a delicate re-agent of hydrochloric or muriatic acid, as to show by a sensible cloud, the presence of one 113th-millionth part of it, or one 7th-millionth part of sea-salt in distilled water." This would lead to the supposition that (at least in the laboratory of the chemist) the more particularly pernicious (sea-salt) of the saline matters can be separated from cane-juice by the aid of nitrate of silver.

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* Raspail. † Ib.

We can readily perceive, from the brief glance we have taken of the constituents of cane-juice, that the object of the planter should be, to separate as early, and in as effectual a manner as possible, the undesirable matters comprised under the head of woody fibre, gluten, green fecula, green wax (chlorophyle), gum, and saline substances; leaving the remaining sugar and water in as pure and simple a state as may be.

Comprised of such substances as these just enumerated, it may readily be supposed that cane-juice is one of the most fermentable compounds possible; and experience shows that in half an hour after expression an incipient vinous fermentation commences. This is often apparent in the vessels used in the West Indies, and called cold receivers; wherein the fresh juice is received as it runs from the mill, and retained, until there is room in the clarifiers to allow of its being drawn down. It often occurs that juice is so kept for a long time; but if the period extends beyond twenty or thirty minutes, the pan-man (attendant on the defecators) always uses a little lime to prevent fermentation, until it can be received in the clarifiers.

There are some planters who argue that a slight fermentation of the juice, previous to clarification, tends to promote that important operation, and that the liquor clarified under such circumstances "boils well," and produces good sugar. Others insist that the fermentation should be after the juice has been clarified, but previous to its being boiled. This latter opinion, at least, seems to have arisen out of a statement made by Dutrone, who writes, "I have twice obtained very fine sugar from juice partially clarified, which had undergone a vinous fermentation during eighteen or twenty hours." On this Porter has a paragraph, which appears to carry with it a recommendation of such a system. Dutrone simply stated a fact, which admits of ready explanation; but it is one that certainly is far from being advantageous to the planter.

If raw cane-juice be allowed to remain exposed to the air, in a short time a fermentation commences, which is of the vinous order; but in another very short time, the acetous fermentation likewise begins, and continues in conjunction with the vinous: that is to say, that the glutinous fecula or ferment contained in the juice, decomposes the sugar, converting it into alcohol, which immediately attacks the glutinous ferment, and precipitates a large portion of it; the alcohol being itself converted, by the action of so large a body of ferment, into vinegar and water. Thus the alcohol formed by the vinous fermentation, is, in the case of raw cane-juice, decomposed and changed into vinegar almost as soon as it is formed!

In the case of partially clarified cane-liquor, that is, cane-juice which has been clarified to the extent it usually is in West India boiling-houses, a longer time is requisite to bring on fermentation than in the raw juice, although it is still very quick. Now, in this partially clarified liquor, there is still a quantity of glutinous ferment that has not been separated, and this, acting on the sugar, causes a vinous fermentation, with the consequent formation of alcohol; but in this case, the alcohol formed being in excess and the ferment in comparatively small proportion, the latter is thrown down as a precipitate, and a very much longer time is necessary to bring on the acetous fermentation than in the former instance: indeed, we may almost say that this latter fermentation does not commence until the vinous fermentation has ceased.

Partially clarified cane-liquor, then, being permitted to undergo the vinous fermentation during some time, has a large portion of its glutinous fecula precipitated by the action of the alcohol on it; and thus, if carefully drawn off (leaving the precipitate behind), and immediately boiled down to concentration, no doubt the result will be "fine sugar." But it must be borne in mind, that the alcohol which here acts as a precipitant is formed altogether at the expense of the sugar contained in the cane-liquor, and, consequently, it is a course that no one should do otherwise than condemn. In regard to the fermentation of the raw juice, as noticed, no good can by any possibility result.

If it be considered desirable to keep raw cane-juice for any length of time, fermentation may be prevented by the use of sulphurous acid. On this subject, Dr. Ure says, "It is known that grape-must, feebly impregnated with sulphurous acid, by running it slowly into a cask in which a few sulphur matches have been burned, will keep without alteration for a year; and if '*must*' so muted be boiled into a syrup within a week or ten days, it retains no sulphurous odor. A very slight muting would suffice for the most fermentable cane-juice,[*] and it could be easily given by burning a sulphur match within the cistern immediately before charging it from the mill. The cane-juice should, in this case, be heated in the clarifier, so as to expel the sulphurous acid, before adding the temper-lime; for otherwise a little calcareous sulphite might be introduced into the sugar. Thus the arescence so prejudicial to the saccharine granulation would be certainly prevented." The sulphurous acid (not sulphuric acid) acts directly on the glutinous ferment, and renders it inoperative: a fact the planter may find it to his benefit to avail himself of, in certain situations which uncontrollable circumstances may place him in.

Many persons imagine that a great good would result from being able to filter cane-juice previous to the application of heat, without incurring the risk of fermentation supervening: others (even scientific men) argue that such a system cannot be carried out practically on a large scale; whilst, for my own part, I cannot discover why cane-juice (being muted with sulphurous acid) should not be able to undergo filtration without being liable to fermentation. I have never tried this, but it appears to me, that if a slight muting with sulphurous acid will prevent fermentation in cold cane-juice for a long period, then that a portion of that period might be availed of to perform the filtration through bag-filters; keeping the liquor cold (as it comes from the mill) during the process. But it is well known that cane-juice so treated will very rarely crystallize as it should do when concentrated, unless some substance has been used to assist granulation; *id est*, that filtration and ordinary boiling in the evaporators are not sufficient (in one case out of ten) to produce a syrup that will crystallize as it should.

Filtration of cold cane-juice, therefore, only places it in a more favorable position for clarification; for although it may remove from the juice any substances that are suspended in it, yet it by no means frees it of those that are *dissolved* in it.

My belief, then, is, that filtration of cold juice is not such a highly important desideratum; as the principle of non-employment of heat cannot be carried out entirely in the process of clarification. For instance, we will take cane-juice that has been carefully filtered, and endeavor to render it into a solution of sugar and water alone, by depriving it of the gummy and glutinous matters dissolved in it. Proceeding, then, on the belief that these matters are held dissolved by some disguised acid, we treat the filtered juice with lime, in order to saturate the acid and restore to the gummy and albuminous matters their insolubility; which thereon will present themselves in the form of a flaky coagula, showing a disposition to precipitate. But is the action of lime so applied confined merely to the the saturation of this free acid? No! far from it: its beneficial action extends to the expulsion of the nitrogen contained in the glutinous matter, and its own combination with the acid which formed the base of the ammoniacal salt.

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[*] As cane-juice is not nearly so fermentable as grape-must.—*Author.*

It has been proved, by Liebig, that the juice of maple and birch trees, and beet-root contains an ammoniacal salt, which, on evaporation, or saturation by lime, gives off ammonia in considerable quantities; whilst the neutral salt is converted, by the loss of ammonia, into an acid salt, which, under the former circumstances, combines with the sugar, converting it into *glucose* or uncrystallizable syrup; and, under the latter, combines with the lime.

It has also been abundantly shown by Raspail, Liebig, and others, that gluten, or vegetable albumen, contains nitrogen in the form of an ammoniacal salt, which is decomposed, and its ammonia expelled, either by evaporation (by heat) or saturating the acid base with an alkali (lime).

The action of lime, then, on the filtered cane-juice is twofold, viz., to saturate the acid base of the ammoniacal salt contained in the gluten expelling the ammonia; and to saturate the free acid which holds the gluten, or albumen dissolved, thereby causing the coagulation and precipitation of that substance. The quantity necessary for this object might be readily determined by any careful person, as the clear filtered juice will, on the gradual addition of lime, present marked signs of a coagulation of its gluten taking place: which may the more readily be discovered by viewing a little of the juice in a wine-glass, tumbler, or decanter.

But, that the process of filtration may proceed* without subjecting the cane-juice to the liability of fermentation, it is necessary that the juice be united with sulphurous acid; which would be one more acid that the lime would have to combine with and precipitate. On the whole, therefore, there does not appear to be any extraordinary advantages attending this process; whilst the trouble attendant on it, and the risks incurred, are sufficient to warrant its rejection.

I have merely bestowed a passing notice on the filtration of cold raw juice through bag filters, as it has been so much dwelt upon by many writers of essays: but the observations I have been led to make relative to the ammoniacal salt contained in gluten, and the free acid which holds the gluten dissolved, as well as the action of lime in both instances, strictly apply throughout to the subject of defecation.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1851–'52..

From the returns and tables of that valuable journal, the New-Orleans Prices Current, we extract the following relating to the commerce of the city in the year which ended the 31st of August. We shall hereafter continue the extracts in accordance with our annual custom since the commencement of the Review. The reader, by referring to the back volumes, or to the condensation of them we have published, will obtain minute particulars of the trade of New-Orleans from the earliest periods of its history.

SUMMARY OF HOME AND FOREIGN TRADE.

The value of products received from the interior since 1st September, 1851, is $108,051,708, against $106,924,083 last year. The value of the exports of American produce, for the year ending 30th June last, according to the Custom-house records, was $76,344,569, against $81,216,925 last year. Of this amount, $48,076,197 was to foreign ports, and $28,268,327 coastwise. The value of foreign merchandise exported during the same period was only $44,780. These figures exhibit a decrease in the total exports, as compared with last year, of $5,273,526. In the exports to foreign countries the decrease is $6,312,986, but there is an increase coastwise of $1,039,460. There has been a material falling off in the operations of the branch mint, the total deposits of gold and silver, for the year ending 31st of July, 1852, being $6,103,650, against $9,107,722 last year. Of the gold, $5,821,695 was from California, against $8,152,878 from the same source last year. The coinage in the same period has been 675,500 pieces of gold, value $6,370,000, and 1,488,000 pieces of silver, value $235,600—total, 2,163,500 pieces, value $6,605,600. Last year the total coinage was $10,044,500.

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* It is tolerably certain that raw cane-juice will take twice or thrice the time to filter, thoroughly, that partially clarified cane-liquor will.

COTTON.

Table showing the quotations for low middling to good middling cotton on the first of each month, with the rates of freight to Liverpool, and sterling bills, at same date.

1851.	Low mid. to good mid.	Sterling per ct. prm.	Freights per lb.
September	7¾a 8¼	10 a11	½ a —
October	7¾a 8⅜	10 a11	7-16a —
November	6½a 7⅜	6½a 8½	½a —
December	6¾a 7⅝	9 a10½	⅜a 7-16
January, 1852	6¾a 7½	8½a 9¾	13-32a 7-16
February	7 a 7⅞	8¾a 9	⅜a13-32
March	7¼a 8½	8½a 9½	15-16a ⅜
April	7 a 7⅞	8½a9½	9-16a —
May	7½a 8½	8 a 8½	9-16a —
June	8½a10	9 a10	¼a 5-16
July	8½a11	9¾a10½	5-16a ⅜
August	8½a11	9½a10½	5-16a ⅜

Table showing the highest and lowest point in each month, for low middling to middling cotton.

	Highest.	Lowest.
September	8½ a 9	7⅞ a 8¼
October	7⅞ a 8	6½ a 7
November	7½ a 7⅝	6⅞ a 7
December	7½ a 7¾	6¾ a 7⅛
January, 1852	7½ a 7⅞	6⅞ a 7¼
February	7⅝ a 7⅞	7 a 7⅜
March	7⅞ a 8	7 a 7½
April	7½ a 7⅞	6⅞ a 7⅛
May	8¾ a 9½	7½ a 8
June	8½ a 9½	8½ a 9
July	8½ a 9½	8½ a 9
August	8⅜ a 9¾	8½ a 9½

Mixed Cotton.—We have, on former occasions, called the attention of planters to the existence of an evil which loudly calls for remedy. We refer to the culpable negligence of many whose duty it is to attend to the packing of cotton, as shown by the frequent discovery of *mixed bales*, viz.: bales that are found to contain two, three or more qualities and colors. This negligence often leads to vexatious reclamations, and sometimes to expensive lawsuits, as it generally happens that the discovery is not made until the cotton has reached the hands of the manufacturer, at a distant market; then, if any portion of the bale is found to be inferior in quality to the sample by which it was purchased, the *whole bale* is reduced to the value of the *lowest grade found*, and the difference reclaimed. Nor is this all, for reclamations are sometimes insisted on even when the purchase has been made by a sample of the *lowest* grade, on the ground that mixed bales are unmerchantable. Thus the planter not only loses the difference in price between the lower and higher qualities, which careless packing has mingled in the same bale, but is called upon to *pay that difference again*. And besides all this, when the irregular packing is once discovered, as it necessarily must be, somewhere and at some time, it throws discredit upon the planter's crops generally, and thus operates to his disadvantage. It sometimes happens that the discovery is made here, before sale, by drawing samples from different parts of a bale. When this is the case, the factor can seldom obtain more than the market value of the lowest sample. The evil which we have here depicted, and which is not only attended with direct loss to the planter, but is also productive of many vexatious controversies, is venial in its character, and only reprehensible for the confusion it introduces into a most important branch of trade, and one that can only be conducted with facility and economy upon the basis of good faith in the honesty and integrity of the planter. These virtues being accorded to him, he owes it to himself, to his factor and to his purchaser, to exercise more care and vigilance over those who have his interests in charge.

The following tables, which have explanatory captions, we have compiled from our records, under the impression that they would probably be found interesting to parties engaged in the cotton trade:

Date of receipt of first bale	Season	Receipts at New-Orleans	Average price per bale	Average price cents, per lb	Total value
1842, July 25	1841, '42	740,155	$33 00	6⅞	$24,425,115
1843, Aug. 17	1842, '43	1,089,642	27 00	10	29,420,334
1844, July 23	1843, '44	910,854	32 00	6¾	29,147,328
1845, July 30	1844, '45	979,238	24 00	6½	23,501,712
1846, Aug. 7	1845, '46	1,053,633	32 00	11	33,716,256
1847, Aug. 9	1846, '47	740,669	44 00	11	32,589,436
1848, Aug. 5	1847, '48	1,213,805	29 00	8	35,200,345
1849, Aug. 7	1848, '49	1,142,382	27 00	—	30,844,314
1850, Aug. 11	1849, '50	837,723	50 00	—	41.886,150
1851, July 25	1850, '51	995,036	49 00	—	48,756.764
	1851, '52	1,429,183	34 00	—	48,592,222

The total receipts at this port since 1st September last, from all sources, are 1,429,183 bales. This amount includes 34,959 bales from Mobile and Florida, and from Texas, by sea; and this being deducted, our receipts proper, including 21,760 bales received direct from Montgomery, etc., are shown to be 1,394,224 bales, being an increase of 444,004 bales over last year, and of 205,491 bales over any previous year. The total exports since 1st of September are 1,435,815 bales, of which 772,242 bales were shipped to Great Britain, 196,254 to France, 210,607 to the north and south of Europe, Mexico, etc., and 256,712 to United States ports. On a comparison of the exports with those of last year there would appear to be an increase of 189,869 bales to Great Britain, 65,892 to France, 78,701 to the north and south of Europe, Mexico, etc., and of 103,895 bales to United States ports. The total receipts at all the Atlantic and Gulf ports, up to the latest dates received —as shown by our general cotton table—are 3,021,519 bales, but the actual crop when made up by the New-York Shipping List, will fall somewhat short of this amount, as it includes some 25,000 bales of last year's stock, which was on hand at Augusta and Hamburg, (Georgia,) and was counted in the last crop.

Thus the largest crop ever produced in the United States has been disposed of, and with results more generally satisfactory than we remember to have witnessed in any previous year. The circumstances which have tended to these results present some remarkable peculiarities, and we propose to touch briefly upon a few of the most prominent, among which we may mention the policy of the factors generally of meeting the markets freely, and thus guarding against any unwieldy accumulation of stock, which would tend to break down the market. In this course they have been aided by circumstances which to many were a momentary evil of magnitude, though they contributed favorably in the general result. We allude to the remarkable drought, which, while constituting a season of the most favorable character for picking, at the same time kept nearly all the tributary streams too low for the purposes of navigation; and thus the great bulk of the supplies which come from the banks of the main river had been received and disposed of before the tributaries were in a condition to contribute to the stock. We would also refer to the great abundance and cheapness of money in Europe, which brought speculators into competition with spinners, and to the remarkable increase in the consumption. This is most prominently shown by the half-yearly returns from Great Britain, by which it appears that the quantity taken for consumption, for the six months ending on 1st July, was 1,031,763 bales, against 776,120 bales for the corresponding six months of the previous year. This made a weekly average of 39,683 bales, or an increase of about 5,000 bales per week over any previous period. Besides this there is an increase in our exports to foreign countries, other than Great Britain, of 210,000 bales, while the quantity taken for home consumption probably exceeds that of last year by about 200,000 bales.

We append a table which exhibits the import, delivery, stock, etc., in the whole of Great Britain, for the first six months of the current year, ending on the 30th June last, and a comparison with the same period in 1851:

		1852.		1851.
Stock 1st January bales		494,600		521,120
Import six months		1,401.363		1,156.500
		1,895,963		1,677,620
Export six months	147,000		95,300	
Consumption	1,031,763	1,178.763	776,120	871,420
Stock 30th June		717,200		806,200
Weekly average taken for consumption		39,683		29,851
Taken on speculation		372,410		114,210

With respect to the market prospects for the coming crop, we think they may be said to be decidedly encouraging; for the experience of the past season would seem to give assurance of a ready demand for even a large crop, and at prices which will be likely to afford a fair return to the producer. As has already been shown, moderate prices, abundant pecuniary means, and other favorable circumstances, have greatly stimulated consumption within the past year, and there is nothing now apparent to discourage the hope that, with the same wise policy of promptly meeting an active demand, a crop even larger than the last may be disposed of, with equally satisfactory results.

2.—TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1851–'52.

The crop of 1851 proved, according to the very valuable statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, to be 236,547 hhds., estimated at 257,138,000 lbs. Of this quantity there were 203,922 hhds. brown sugar made by the old process, and 32,625 hhds. refined, clarified, etc., including cistern bottoms. This was the produce of 1,474 plantations, of which 914 are worked by steam, and 560 by horse-power, and the result shows only a moderate yield, as the cane generally was not well matured, besides which the loss by crevasses is estimated to have been about 10,000 hhds. The crop also presented a low average in quality, as besides the immature condition of the cane, it was somewhat injured by frost, and we noticed several sales on the Levee as low as 1½, 1¾ and 2 cents per lb. The following table, which shows the highest and the lowest points in each month for fair sugar on the Levee, will indicate the general course of the market:

	Highest.	Lowest.
September......cents per lb.	6¼ a 6½	5¾ a 6¼
October	5¾ a 6¼	4½ a 5
November	4½ a 5¼	4¼ a 4¾
December	4 a 4⅜	3½ a 4
January	3⅞ a 4⅜	3½ a 4
February	3⅞ a 4¼	3½ a 4
March	4 a 4½	3¾ a 4⅛
April	4¼ a 4¾	3⅞ a 4⅝
May	5 a 5¼	4⅜ a 4¾
June	5¼ a 5¾	5 a 5¼
July	5¼ a 5¾	5 a 5¼
August	5¼ a 5¾	5 a 5¼

These figures present a considerably lower average than was obtained for the crop of last year, the increase in quantity and the deficiency in quality having both tended to this result. The reported sales on plantation have been at the following rates, for crops—3¼, 3½, 3¾, 3⅞, 4, 4⅛, 4¼, 4½, 4¾ and 5 cents per lb., the lowest being in December, for a mixed crop, and the highest in April, for a prime one. The prevailing rates of the season have been 4 a 4¼ cents per lb. for prime crops.

The annexed table gives the crop of each year for the last twenty-two years, and a reference to it will show great fluctuations in the product:

Crop of 1851	236,547 hhds.	Crop of 1840	87,000 hhds.
" 1850	211,203 "	" 1839	115,000 "
" 1849	247,923 "	" 1838	70,000 "
" 1848	220,000 "	" 1837	65,000 "
" 1847	240,000 "	" 1836	70,000 "
" 1846	140,000 "	" 1835	30,000 "
" 1845	186,650 "	" 1834	100,000 "
" 1844	200,000 "	" 1833	75,000 "
" 1843	100,000 "	" 1832	70,000 "
" 1842	140,000 "	" 1829	48,000 "
" 1841	90,000 "	" 1828	88,000 "

The crop of Texas is said to give highly favorable promise, and the yield is expected to be more than double that of last year.

In an elaborate statement, made up at New-York, the consumption of the United States, for the year 1851, is put down at 321,736 tons. This is exclusive of about 40,000 lbs. of maple sugar, and of a large quantity of sugar made from foreign molasses, which we have no data for estimating.

EXPORTS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO, FROM NEW-ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 31ST AUGUST, 1852.

Whither exported.	Cotton Bales.	Tobacco Hhds.	Whither exported.	Cotton Bales.	Tobacco Hhds.
Liverpool	751,172	7,844	Spain and Gibraltar	47,645	7,662
London	—	5,197	Havana, Mexico, &c.	11,919	—
Glasgow and Greenock	11,700	—	Genoa, Trieste, &c.	75,093	11,134
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.	7,211	982	China	—	—
Cork, Belfast, &c	2,159	—	Other foreign ports	15,046	3,533
Havre	183,054	9,056	New-York	101,938	13,347
Bordeaux	1,554	1,916	Boston	128,629	1,941
Marseilles	4,308	2,976	Providence, R. I.	4,561	—
Nantz, Cette and Rouen	7,338	—	Philadelphia	15,594	1,296
Amsterdam	259	1,157	Baltimore	4,745	385
Rotterdam and Ghent	1,507	222	Portsmouth	—	—
Bremen	10,248	15,515	Other coastwise ports	45	230
Antwerp, &c.	24,562	7,618	Western States	1,200	—
Hamburg	17,694	475			
Gottenburg	6,634	1,229	Total	1,435,815	93,715

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain	772,242	14,023	Coastwise	256,712	17,199
France	196,254	13,948			
North of Europe.	75,950	26,814	Total	1,435,815	93,715
South of Europe & China	134,657	21,731			

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, PORK, BACON, LARD, BEEF, LEAD, WHISKY, AND CORN, FROM 1ST SEPT., 1851, TO 31ST AUGUST, 1852.

Ports	Flour, Barrels	Pork, Barrels	Bacon, Hhds	Lard, Kegs	Beef, Barrels	Lead, Pigs	Whisky Barrels	Corn, Sacks
New-York	94,638	57,356	12,685	256,738	9,295	149,781	6,553	133,488
Boston	61,124	62,702	5,431	208,613	12,285	73,895	1,845	148,524
Philadelphia	24	4,849	2,772	20,686	200	31,118	1,888	13,905
Baltimore	—	14,164	2,334	32,318	—	—	2,538	—
Other cstw. pts.	179,911	25,846	26,173	51,664	752	1,645	68,311	336,719
Great Britain	138,569	1,263	—	61,923	15,109	—	—	192,288
Cuba	6,681	946	812	158,447	15	—	—	37,466
Other for. ports.	63,764	5,622	96	2,154	551	500	21	12,384
Total	544,711	172,748	50,303	792,543	36,207	256,939	81,156	874,774

IMPORTS INTO NEW-ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR, FROM THE 1ST SEPTEMBER TO THE 31ST AUGUST, 1851–52.

Apples, bbls.	20356
Bacon, asst. casks, &c.	46734
Bacon, bbls. & boxes	3626
Bacon, Hams, hhds	38488
Bacon in bulk, lbs	281280
Bagging, pieces	60044
Bale Rope, coils	90272
Beans, bbls	6598
Butter, kegs	44786
Butter, bbls	1778
Beeswax, bbls	171
Beef, bbls. & tierces	52850
Beef, dried lbs.	26100
Buffalo Robes, packs	1300
COTTON. La. & Mi.. bales	967679
Lake, bales	15202
N. Ala. & Ten., bales	304153
Arkansas, bales	83430
Mongomery, &c.	21760
Mobile, bales	15606
Florida, do	4807
Texas, do	14546
Corn Meal, bbls	2514
Corn in ears, bbls	163008
Corn, shelled, sacks	1397132
Cheese, boxes	72441
Candles, boxes	53936
Cider, bbls	300
Coal, western, bbls	850000
Dried Peaches, bbls	336
Dried Apples, bbls	468
Flaxseed, tierces	519
Flour, bbls	927212
Furs, hhds., boxes, bdls.	2136
Feathers, bags	2065
Hemp, bales	17149
Hides,	123687
Hay, bales	53434
Iron, Pig, tons	62
Lard, hhds	57
Lard, tcs. & bbls	125496
Lard kegs	157689
Lime western bbls	42305
Lead pigs	267564
Lead, bar kegs	1138
Lead, white kegs	1368
Molasses bbls	233923
Oats bbls and sks	463273
Onions bbls	17184
Oil, linseed bbls	758
Oil, castor bbls	4291
Oil, lard bbls	14114
Pickles, kegs & bbls	381
Potatoes bbls	228095
Pork, tcs. & bbls	276606
Pork boxes	303
Pork hhds	2478
Pork, in bulk lbs	8800000
Porter and ale bbls	406
Packing yarn reels	2093
Skins, deer packs	998
Shot kegs	2704
Sugar hhds	141046
Sugar bbls	11213
Soap boxes	5308
Shingles	40000
Staves	7319000
Tallow bbls	1307
Tobacco, lead hhds	89675
Tobacco, chew. kegs	4779
Tobacco bales	162
Twine bundles	2341
Whisky bbls	146352
Window glass bxs	19251
Wheat, bbls. & sacks	64918

VALUE OF PRODUCE OF THE INTERIOR.

A Table, showing the receipts of the principal articles from the interior, during the year ending 31*st August*, 1852, *with their estimated average and total value.*

Articles.	Amount	Average	Value Dollars
Apples ....bbls.	20356	$3 00	61068
Bacon, ass'd,hdds. & casks............	46734	75 00	3505050
Bacon,assorted, bxs	3626	35 00	126910
Bacon, hams, hhds. and tcs..........	38488	70 00	2694160
Bacon, in bulk..pds.	281280	8	22502
Bagging .....pieces	60044	13 00	780572
Bale rope.. .....coils	90272	7 50	677040
Beans......... bbls.	6598	10 00	65980
Butter....kegs and firkins............	44786	8 00	358288
Butter.........bbls.	1778	30 00	53340
Beeswax .....bbls.	171	45 00	7695
Beef...........bbls.	41227	12 00	494724
Beef.........tierces	11523	15 00	172845
Beef, dried..pounds	26100	8	2088
Buffalo robes..packs	1300	75 00	97500
Cotton ....bales	1429183	34 00	48592222
Corn meal ....bbls.	2514	3 00	7542
Corn, in ear...bbls.	163008	70 00	114105
Corn, shelled..sacks	1397132	1 20	1676558
Cheese........boxes	72441	3 50	253543
Candles .....boxes	53936	6 00	323616
Cider.......... bbls.	300	3 00	900
Coal, western..bbls.	850000	50 00	425000
Dried apples and peaches..........	804	5 00	4020
Feathers.......bags	2065	35 00	72275
Flaxseed....tierces	519	10 00	5190
Flour ....bbls.	927212	4 00	3708848
Furs, hhds., bundles and boxes........	2136	—	1000000
Hemp..........bales	17149	15 00	257235
Hides...............	123687	2 00	247374
Hay ....bales	53434	3 00	160302
Iron, pig ....tons	62	30 00	1860
Lard... bbls. & tcs.	125496	25 00	3137400
Lard ....kegs	157689	5 00	788445
Leather....bundles	7572	25 00	189300
Lime,western..bbls.	42305	1 25	52881
Lead............pigs	267564	3 20	856204
Lead, bar...kegs & boxes...............	1138	20 00	22760
Lead, white...kegs	1368	3 00	4104
Molasses (estimated crop.......glls. [1	8300000	22	4026000
Oats..bbls. & sacks	463273	75	347454
Onions..........bbls.	17184	2 00	34368
Oil, linseed.....bbls.	758	26 00	19708
Oil, castor ..... bbls.	4291	28 00	·120148
Oil, lard.......bbls.	14114	28 00	395192
Potatoes....... bbls.	228095	2 00	456190
Pork.....tcs. & bbls	276606	16 00	4425696
Pork ....boxes	303	35 00	10605
Pork............hhds.	2478	80 00	198240
Pork, in bulk...pds.	8800000	7	616000
Porter & ale...bbls.	406	10 00	4060
Packing yarn..reels	2093	7 00	14651
Skins, deer...packs	998	25 00	24950
Skins, bear...packs	16	15 00	240
Shot.............kegs	2704	25 00	67600
Soap..........boxes	5308	3 00	15924
Staves.............M.	7319	38 00	278122
Sugar(estimated cp.) hhds.............	236547	50 00	11827350
Spanish moss..bales	4372	8 00	34976
Tallow.........bbls.	1307	20 00	26140
Tobacco, leaf..hhds.	75816	75 00	5686200
Tobacco,strips,hhds.	11741	125	1467625
Tobacco,stems,hhds.	2118	20 00	42360
Tobacco,chew'g kgs. and boxes.......	4779	20 00	95580
Twine, buns.& boxes	2341	8 00	18728
Vinegar........bbls	92	6 00	552
Whisky.........bbls	146352	7 50	1097640
Window glass...bxs.	19251	2 50	48127
Wheat. bbls. & scks	64918	2 00	129836
Other various ar'cles	estimated	at.	5500000
Total value—dollars	..		08051708
Total in 1850–51,	..		106924083
Total in 1849–50,	..		96897873
Total in 1848–49,	..		81989692

EXPORTS OF SUGAR AND MOLASSES, FROM NEW-ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 31ST AUGUST, 1852.

Whither exported.	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New-York.....	18,225	134	130	26,703
Philadelphia...	6,489	946	93	6,384
Charleston,S.C.	3,524	1,685	—	9,519
Savannah......	729	99	—	2,873
Providence and Bristol, R. I..	—	—	319	143
Boston.........	611	21	—	1,409
Baltimore......	6,400	38	—	11,081
Norfolk, Va.. Richmond .. Petersburg ..	4,585	338	41	5,323
Alexandria,D.C	1,156	—	—	2,127
Mobile.........	5,327	—	—	16,187
Apal. & Pensac.	1,399	416	—	7,207
Other ports....	2,348	2,857	—	5,151
Total....	50,793	6,534	583	94,107

MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF SHIPS, BARKS, BRIGS, SCHOONERS AND STEAMBOATS, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1851, TO AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

Months	Ships	Barks	Brigs	Schrs	St. Ships	Total	St. Boats
Sept.	31	21	12	43	14	121	140
Oct.	74	32	26	51	18	201	186
Nov.	107	26	19	44	14	210	194
Dec.	105	66	41	77	14	303	293
Jan.	69	39	29	55	13	205	297
Feb.	95	33	30	70	18	246	285
Mch.	74	29	30	64	20	217	365
April	59	27	24	76	24	210	290
May.	92	32	26	60	17	227	242
June.	59	30	21	55	24	189	238
July.	20	21	17	41	19	118	127
Aug.	22	15	12	37	18	104	121
Tot.	807	371	287	673	213	2,351	2,778

3.—COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

Statement of Domestic Produce and Manufactures shipped from the port of St. Louis destined to New-Orleans, Natchez, Vicksburg, Memphis, Nashville Mills' Point, Helena, and other places on the interior waters of the United States, in the year ending 30*th June,* 1851 :

Flour	648,520	bbls.	Lead	472,438	pigs.
“	2,156	sacks.	“	78,600	lb. brs.
Wheat	112,600	“	Tobacco	9,210	hhds.
Oats	415,624	“	“	5,011	bxs.
Barley	17,487	“	Refined Sugars	21,892	bbls.
Pork	108	hhds.	Sugars	21,405	hhds.
“	5,012	tcs.	“	11,548	bbls.
“	122,948	bbls.	Molasses	40,510	“
Lard	14,290	tcs.	Whisky	29,916	“
“	47,450	bbls.	Hides	38,490	
“	19,730	kgs.	Nails	38,776	kgs.
“	412	tons.	Glass	6,418	bxs.
Beef	5,111	tcs.	Salt	16,753	bbls.
“	4,538	bbls.	Cotton Yarn	6,180	bgs.
Bacon	24,432	csks.	Wrought Iron Manufactures	15,345	tons.
“	6,986	tcs.	Castings	30,840	“
Hemp	57,160	bales.			

4.—IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW-YORK—1851 & 1852.

	Jan. 1 to Aug. 31.			Jan. 1 to Aug. 31.	
	1852.	1851.		1852.	1851.
Brandy, ½ pipes	10,843	10,716	Pepper, bags	23,414	2,884
“ ¼ casks & bbls.	25,449	24,660	Pimento, bags	10,950	6,027
Coal, tons	49,451	37,745	Rags, bales	26,869	24,689
Cochineal, ceroons	1,107	1,521	Raisins, casks	1,894	8,938
Cocoa, bags	4,725	7,719	“ bxs & frails	105,711	148,738
Coffee, pkgs.	445,989	392,210	“ drums	—	960
Cotton, bales	397,856	313,890	Rice, tierces	28,910	28,859
Duck, bales	300	570	Rum, puncheons	1,183	996
“ pieces	11,913	6,953	Salt, bushels	1,315,407	1,246,579
Earthenware, pkgs	25,604	28,119	Saltpetre, bags	28,021	13,244
Figs, drums, &c.	14,314	56,024	Sugar, hhds	157,886	133,082
Gin, pipes	3,162	3,255	“ tierces	3,380	1,448
Hemp, bales	47,063	42,563	“ bbls	34,627	31,379
“ tons	268	774	“ boxes	163,157	168,038
Hides, bales	1,069	919	“ bags	59,890	141,277
“ No.	773,104	866,333	Spelter, plates	54,493	82,618
Iron—bar, tons	26,096	37,952	Tin—Banca, &c., slabs	25,393	13,266
pig, tons	46,390	38,598	Plates, boxes	226,152	230,362
sheet, &c., bdls.	372,910	479,429	Tobacco, hhds	10,603	9,454
Indigo, cases	1,258	1,614	“ bales & ceroons	24,550	15,434
“ ceroons	881	656	Wines, butts and pipes	1,064	963
Lead, pigs	268,743	328,264	“ hhds & ½ pipes	13,631	11,767
Molasses, hhds	63,264	76,263	“ ¼ casks	28,884	37,323
“ tierces	4,916	5,086	“ bbls	6,607	7,118
“ bbls	31,940	36,633	“ boxes	44,172	53,760
Olive Oil, casks	747	1,336	Wool, bales	11,757	37,153
“ boxes & bskts	36,820	19,997			

5.—COMMERCE OF VIRGINIA.

It may attract the attention of the people to the depressed condition of the commercial affairs of Virginia, by referring to the official reports in the matter. It is seen that the amount of foreign imports of the United States, for the last year, was one hundred and forty-seven millions eight hundred and fifty-seven thousand four hundred and thirty-nine dollars. Allowing about eight and a half dollars to each individual, according to the last census, the quota, therefore, for this state, should have been $10,533,376, whilst her *actual* imports were only $241,935. During the same period there came into the ports of the United States 20,200 vessels—of which 146 only entered Virginia—whilst her share should have been 1467. Let us imagine the vast difference in the thrift and prosperity of our seaport towns, and of the whole state, that will ensue, when the navigation and commerce that properly belongs to us, is sustained—when we see fifteen hundred vessels from foreign ports annually arriving at our towns, is it not, therefore, highly important that the people should be awakened as to their true interests, and urged to take incipient steps to renovate their condition ?

6.—THE FISHERIES.

The following table exhibits the United States tonnage employed in the fisheries, and the import and export of fish into and from the United States, for a series of years. The table shows the importance of the interests at stake upon the decision of the fish controversy. It is the mackerel fishermen who are more particularly interested in the recent policy of the British Government :

	Tonnage.			Imports.		Exports.	
	Cod tons.	Mackerel tons.	Total tons.	Dried cwt.	Pickled lbs.	Dried cwt.	Pickled. lbs.
1840	60,035	28,629	104,304	4,061	25,493	211,425	42,274
1841	66,551	11,321	77,873	2,422	18,012	252,190	36.508
1842	54,804	16,096	70,900	1,265	14,678	256,083	40,846
1843	61,224	11,775	73,000	2,640	12,334	174,220	20,198
1844	85,224	16,170	101,395	360	43,542	271,610	43,500
1845	69,825	21,413	91,238	1,297	30,506	211,425	42,374
1846	72,516	36,453	108,978	865	31,402	277,401	56,331
1847	70,177	31,451	101,628	8,274	91,113	258,870	30,976
1848	82,651	43,558	126,210	51,826	122,594	206,549	22,445
1849	73,882	42,992	116,874	22,520	138,508	197,457	25,570
1850	93,886	58,112	151,918	25,115	108,380	168,600	19 330
1851	95,615	50,539	146,154	14,765	145,368	151,088	21,214

7.—THE MARINE OF THE WORLD.

NUMBER OF VESSELS AND TONNAGE BELONGING TO THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES—1852.

Countries.	Tons.	Vessels.	Countries.	Tons.	Vessels.
Great Britain	4,144,115	34,090	Netherlands	396,924	1,793
France	595,344	13,679	Austria	178,000	—
Norway	337,058	3,064	Denmark and Duchies	168,978	4,710
Russia	—	750	Papal States	133,402	1,590
Greece	150,000	4,000	Canada	68,553	683
Naples	100,000	—	Ceylon	30,828	609
Hamburg	82,053	286	Mauritius	10,020	125
Belgium	22,770	161	Tuscany	27,598	773
Cape of Good Hope	4,080	34	Prussia	133,658	977
United States	3,535,451	—			
			Total	10,118,841	67,184

THE SHIPPING AND TONNAGE ENTERED INWARDS AND CLEARED OUTWARDS FROM THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES :

	Entered		Cleared	
Countries	Tons	Vessels	Tons	Vessels
Great Britain	6,113,696	31,249	5,906,978	29,011
France	1,887,291	15,263	1,430,085	13,868
Netherlands	1,029,771	6,959	1,136,864	7.017
Hamburg	730,596	4,094	729,186	4,114
Canada	628,399	1,699	636,407	1,732
Spain	579,475	5,206	470,973	4,622
India	406,479	868	522,056	1,128
Prussia	813,096	4,690	823,456	4,635
United States	4,328,639	21,643	4,361,002	21,805
Russia	1,323,080	6,401	1,177,994	6,197
Norway	772,885	7,969	806,766	8,160
Sardinia	700,000	6,000	700,000	6,000
Austria	547,228	—	562,722	—
Sweden	540,902	6,707	562,394	6,347
Belgium	356,367	2,424	349,638	2,368
Egypt	409,156	2,019	432,696	1,707
China	169,155	531	163,717	538
Other Countries	1,927,505	15,915	1,965,867	17,163
Total	23,333,620	139,638	22,738,801	136,402

8.—STATEMENT OF THE COMMERCE OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE U. S., FROM JULY 1, 1850, TO JUNE 30, 1851.*

States.	Domestic Produce Exported.			Foreign Produce Exported.		Total of American and Foreign produce exported.	Imports in American Vessels.	Imports in Foreign Vessels.	Total Imports.	Total American and Foreign Tonnage entered. Tons.	Total American and Foreign Tonnage cleared. Tons.
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.						
Maine	$1,251,391	$266,096	$1,517,487	$26,959	$6,992	$1,551,438	$968,061	$208,529	$1,176,590	147,184	195,741
New-Hampshire	1,287	3,662	4,949	—	—	4,949	44,682	13,346	58,028	7,397	7,693
Vermont	761,712	—	761,712	304	—	762,016	691,268	—	691,268	128,013	121,848
Massachusetts	7,707,995	2,149,542	9,857,537	1,931,664	563,481	12,352,682	23,117,834	9,597,493	32,715,327	661,574	626,800
Rhode Island	222,567	837	223,404	14,373	—	237,777	295,209	15,421	310,630	22,892	23,585
Connecticut	419,924	13,970	433,894	184	—	434,078	320,858	22,136	342,994	34,712	30,661
New-York	51,698,245	16,406,297	68,104,542	11,403,676	6,498,801	86,007,019	106,568,635	34,977,903	141,546,538	2,746,129	2,467,132
New-Jersey	—	139	139	—	—	139	—	1,111	1,111	1,188	928
Pennsylvania	4,138,261	963,708	5,101,969	228,830	25,237	5,356,036	11,541,212	2,627,549	14,168,761	159,636	140,174
Delaware	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Maryland	3,732,315	1,684,483	5,416,798	198,137	20,851	5,635,786	5,662,066	988,579	6,650,645	113,027	105,789
D. of Columbia	72,560	—	72,560	—	—	72,560	80,527	286	80,813	1,677	1,859
Virginia	1,550,738	1,536,706	3,087,444	2,624	—	3,090,068	227,339	325,594	552,933	34,563	65,347
North Carolina	236,482	190,266	426,748	4,347	—	431,095	125,978	80,953	206,931	20,318	43,388
South Carolina	8,354,698	6,961,880	15,316,578	—	—	15,316,578	1,646,915	434,397	2,081,312	93,064	140,508
Georgia	5,224,518	3,934,361	9,158,879	360	750	9,159,989	404,477	317,070	721,547	47,096	69,709
Florida	2,519,319	1,420,591	3,939,910	—	262	3,940,172	38,875	56,122	94,997	25,225	29,303
Alabama	11,641,695	6,887,129	18,528,824	—	—	18,528,824	43,736	369,710	413,446	55,684	121,265
Louisiana	38,022,609	15,945,404	53,968,013	388,265	57,675	54,413,963	10,134,465	2,393,995	12,528,460	328,932	421,566
Mississippi	—	—	—	—	—	—	845	—	845	—	—
Tennessee	—	—	—	—	—	—	64,761	—	64,761	—	—
Missouri	—	—	—	—	—	—	622,039	—	622,039	—	—
Ohio	187,158	207,967	395,125	—	—	395,125	586,460	99,871	686,331	51,837	30,586
Kentucky	—	—	—	—	—	—	213,576	—	213,576	—	—
Michigan	92,816	90,632	183,448	5,894	2,084	191,426	182,146	—	182,146	46,999	52,357
Illinois	98,249	16,087	114,336	—	—	114,336	3,609	1,048	4,657	4,802	2,308
Texas	—	75,422	75,422	—	—	75,422	62,745	31,970	94,715	3,363	2,337
California	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,225	11,306	13,531	258,128	430,170
Oregon	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	137,934,539	58,755,179	196,689,718	14,205,617	7,176,143	218,071,478	163,650,543	52,574,389	216,224,932	4,993,440	5,130,054

NOTE.—No returns of imports or exports have been received from San Francisco in California for 1851.

* From the latest returns yet published by Congress.

9.—CANADIAN COMMERCE.

The value of merchandise imported from each country in each of the past three years, was as annexed:

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Great Britain	£1,669,002	£2,407,980	£3,012,033
N. A. Colonies	48,913	96,404	109,242
West Indies	3	1,112	3,400
United States	2,242,855	1,648,715	2,091,441
Other foreign countries	41,824	91,393	142,574

From this table it appears that, taking the three years inclusively, the importations have increased from Great Britain at the rate of about 70¼ per cent.; from the United States at the rate of about 60½ per cent.; and from the North American colonies at the rate of about 123 per cent.

The following are the numbers and tonnage of foreign vessels entered at Quebec and Montreal in 1851:—

	No.	Tons.
United States	35	20,062
Norway	47	17,640
Prussia	21	7,667
Russia	8	3,668
Sweden	3	989
Mecklenburg	2	478
Hanover	1	212
Totals	117	50,716

There were built during the year in Canada 4 steamers of 450 tons, and 77 sailing vessels of 42,649 tons.

AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE COTTON CROP OF 1851-'52.

NEW-ORLEANS.—Exported foreign, 1,179,103; coastwise, 256,712; stock 1st Sept., 1852, 9,758—1,445,573 bales. In this is included, 15,390 stock 1st September, 1851; 37,366 received from Mobile and Montgomery; 4,807 received from Florida; 14,546 received from Texas.

ALABAMA.—Exported foreign, 430,846; coastwise, 143,804; consumption in Mobile, 842; stock, 1st Sept., 1852, 2,319—577,811 bales. In this is included, 344 wrecked cotton returned; 221 received from Texas and New-Orleans; 27,797 stock, 1st September, 1851.

TEXAS.—Exported foreign, 7,235; coastwise, 57,096; stock, 1st Sept., 1852, 317—64,648 bales. In this is included, 596 stock, 1st September, 1851.

FLORIDA.—Exported foreign, 64,492; coastwise, 123,829; stock in Apalachicola, 1st September, 1852, 451—188,772 bales. In this is included, 273 stock in Apalachicola, 1st September, 1851.

GEORGIA.—Exported foreign, uplands, 111,249; Sea Islands, 7,605; coastwise, uplands, 224,958; Sea Islands, 3,656; burnt at Savannah, 5,600; stock in Savannah, 1st Sept., 1852, 2,950; stock in Augusta, 1st September, 3,707—359,725 bales. In this is included, 34,011 stock in Savannah and Augusta, 1st September, 1851.

SOUTH CAROLINA—CHARLESTON.—Exported foreign, uplands, 270,427; Sea Islands, 19,008; coastwise, uplands, 199,605; Sea Islands, 3,305; burnt at Charleston, 300—492,645 bales. *Export from Georgetown*—New-York and Boston, 2,535; Stock in Charleston, 1st Sept., 1852, 11,146--506,326 bales. In this is included, 10,953 stock in Charleston, 1st September, 1851, 18,759 received from Savannah

NORTH CAROLINA.—Exported foreign, 424; coastwise, 15,818—16,242 bales.

VIRGINIA.—Exported foreign, 35; coastwise and manufactured, (taken from ports,) 20,955; stock, 1st September, 450—21,440 bales. In this is included, 620 stock 1st September, 1851.

Received by New-York and Erie Canal, 175.

Total crop of the United States, 1852, 3,015,029 bales.

Total crop of the United States, 1851, 2,355,257 bales.

Increase from last year, 659,722 bales.

From the statement of the cotton crop, prepared for the New-York *Skipping and Commercial List and Prices Current*, it will be seen that the

	Bales
Total crop, 1851-52, is	3,015,029
Total export	2,443,646
Taken for home use at the North	603,029
Taken for home use at the South and West	75,000
Quantity of *new* received to 1st inst	5,125

Showing an *increase* in the crop of 659,722 bales, in the export of 454,936, in the consumption at the North, of 198,921; and South and West, of 15,000 bales.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF GROWTH.

Crop of	Bales.		Bales
		1842—3	2,378,875
1851—2	3,015,029	1841—2	1,683,574
1850—1	2,355,257	1840—1	1,634.945
1849-50	2,096.706	1839-40	2,177,835
1848—9	2,728,596	1838—9	1,360,532
1847—8	2,347,634	1837—8	1,801,497
1846—7	1.778,651	1836—7	1.422,930
1845—6	2,100.537	1835—6	1,360.725
1844—5	2,394,503	1834—5	1,254,328
1843—4	2,030,409	1833—4	1,205,394

QUANTITY CONSUMED BY AND IN THE HANDS OF MANUFACTURERS—NORTH OF VIRGINIA.

	Bales.		Bales.
1851-2	603,029	1842-3	325,129
1850-1	405,108	1841-2	267,850
1849-50	487,769	1840-1	297,288
1848-9	512,039	1839-40	295,193
1847-8	531,772	1838-9	276,018
1846-7	427,967	1837-8	246,063
1845-6	422,597	1836-7	222,540
1844-5	389,006	1835-6	236,733
1843-4	346,744	1834-5	216,888

CONSUMPTION.

			Bales.
Total crop of the United States, as before stated			3,015,029
Add—			
Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year, Sept. 1, 1851 :—			
In the southern ports		89,044	
In the northern ports		39,260	
			128,304
Makes a supply of			3,143,333
Deduct therefrom—			
The export to foreign ports	2,443,646		
Less—foreign included	543		
		2,443,103	
Stocks on hand Sept 1, 1852 :			
In the southern ports	31.098		
In the northern ports	60,078		
		91,176	
Burnt at Savannah, Charleston and Providence		6,025	
			2,540,304
Taken for home use			603,029

We give below our usual table of the amount of cotton consumed the past year in the states south and west of Virginia, and not included in the receipts at the ports. We have increased the estimate somewhat from the year previous, though the number and capacity of the mills have been about the same, but give it only for what it purports to be, an *estimate*, which we believe approximates correctness. Thus, in—

	Quantity consumed.		
North Carolina	15,000	bales,	of 400 lbs.
South Carolina	10,000	"	"
Georgia	22,000	"	"
Alabama	5,000	"	of 500 lbs.
Tennessee	7,000	"	"
On the Ohio, &c	16,000	"	"
Total to Sept. 1, 1852	75,000	"	
" " 1851	60,000	"	
" " 1850	107,500	"	
" " 1849	110,000	"	
" " 1848	75,000	"	

To which, if we add the stocks in the interior towns, &c., the quantity burnt in the interior, and that lost on its way to market, to the crop as given above, received at the shipping ports, the aggregate will show very nearly the amount raised in the United States the past season—say, in round numbers, 3,100,000 bales, against 2,450,000 bales the year previous.

During the year just closed, there was received at an eastern port, 175 bales by way of the New-York & Erie Canal, which we have added in another place to the crop of the country.

It may be remarked in this connection, that some of the cotton received overland at Philadelphia and Baltimore is doubtless unaccounted for elsewhere, not being counted in the receipts at New-Orleans, but as we have of late years omitted this item from the crop, it is not now added.

The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports up to the 1st inst. amounted to about 5,125 bales against about 3,200 bales last year.

The shipments given in this statement from Texas, are those by *sea* only; a considerable portion of the crop of that state finds its way to market via Red River, and is included in the receipts at New-Orleans.

EXPORT TO FOREIGN PORTS, FROM SEPT. 1, 1851, TO AUG. 31, 1852.

From	To Great Britain.	To France.	North of Europe.	Other Foreign P'ts.	Total.
New-Orleans—bales	772,242	196,254	75,950	134,657	1,179,103
Mobile	306,002	97,753	8,826	18,265	430,846
Texas	1,388	3,202	2,696	——	7,286
Florida	48,638	1,560	9,840	4,454	64,492
Georgia	109,378	12,593	2,483	——	124,454
South Carolina	207,220	43,950	16,240	22,025	289,435
North Carolina	419	——	5	——	424
Virginia	——	35	——	——	35
Baltimore	71	——	100	——	171
Philadelphia	4,619	55	——	422	5,096
New-York	218,772	65,978	50,536	4,491	339,772
Boston	50	——	2,200	333	2,583
Grand total	1,668,749	421,375	168,875	184,647	2,443,646
Total last year	1,418,265	301,358	129,492	139,595	1,988,710
Increase	250,484	120,017	39,383	45,052	454,936

2—AGRICULTURAL PAPERS AND SCHOOLS.

There is no country where the mind is so inquisitive as in America. Travel over the whole world and return, and the truth is seen and felt more palpably. To us the masses of the world are looking for improvement, physically and morally, and for it they seek us by thousands daily. In the United States there are about thirty agricultural journals published, and there are about five hundred thousand copies taken and read by the people—a mere drop to the ocean. There are agricultural journals in the state of New-York that have six times greater circulation than any single paper of the kind in Europe. This only shows how great the thirst we ought to assist in gratifying. In America there is not an agricultural school aided or patronized by the government; and, in fact, it may be said, that there is none at all. Some are just beginning to struggle for life, but the faint, feeble feelings of the general government diffuses itself into every part of its great family, and paralyses the whole body. There is not what may be regarded as a text book in any branch of agricultural or rural economy in America.

Compare what America, as a nation, has done with what has been done by other nations. I can but glance at it. Russia has in all, sixty-eight schools and colleges. She has an agricultural institution with forty college buildings, occupying three thousand acres of land, and attended by several thousand students. The Agricultural Society of St. Petersburg, was established by Queen Catharine. There are under the patronage of the French government seventy school farms, besides the first class colleges, in which professors are employed to lecture on botany, zoology, chemistry, agriculture and the treatment of diseases in cattle; on the culture of woods, forests, &c. These are supported throughout the country. National establishments for the improvement of breed of stock, and colleges for the education of veterinary surgeons and investigating the uses of all discoveries contemplated for agricultural improvement. The government expends in three veterinary schools, a year, for instruction, 754,200 francs; for instruction in agriculture 2,731,468 francs; for encouragement in agriculture 700,000 francs; for improvement in the breeds of horses, and science connected with it, alone, 1,775,400 francs. The requirements for admission in these veternary schools are as follows: The applicant must not be less than seventeen years of age, and not over twenty-five, and have the following qualifications: to be able to forge a horse or ox shoe after the second heating—pass an examination in the French language, arithmetic, and geography, and after four years' study is permitted to practice veterinary surgery, and receive a diploma. In Belgium, great attention is paid to the subject. There are a hundred agricultural schools or colleges established by the government—a high school of veterinary surgery. The science of agriculture is the most fashionable in the kingdom. They have their palaces furnished more or less with rare specimens of products of the land, and are farmed like a garden. In Saxony they have five schools; in Italy two; in Scotland two; in Ireland sixty-three; in Bavaria thirty-three; in Prussia thirty-two. The one at Glassnevin, near Dublin, now consists of one hundred and twenty-eight acres of good land, and convenient buildings, and they are about to add to their farm, and increase their buildings so as to accommodate one hundred or more students. Mr. Donaghy is an intelligent practical man. These schools have done more for Ireland than any other attention the government has given them. They have colleges and agricultural schools in England, sustained by the government—some four or five with large farms attached to them—where all the sciences connected with the general business are taught with great perfection, and millions of money each year invested in the general science of agriculture by the nation. It is an investment and not an expenditure. Other countries are engaged in the same business, but I cannot go further in detail. Sufficient is said to draw a parallel between their views and ours. Abroad, they invest millions each year, in a country not larger than an average of our states. Here, in all our country, for seventy-five years, for the general object we have expended $29,000."

3—CONSUMPTION OF TOBACCO IN THE UNITED STATES.

		1840.		1850.
Growth per census..		219,363,319		199,532,494
Export—				
Leaf..............	177,393,600		115,134,000	
Manufactured.......	7,503,644		7,235,358	
Snuff..............	68,533		37,422	
Total exports, lbs...		184,965,797		122,406,780
Balance, lbs........		34,197,522		77,125,714
Net imports, lbs.....		346,035		4,807,858
U. S. consumption..		34,543,557		81,933,572
U. S. " per head		2 lbs, ⅜ oz.		3 lbs. 8 oz.

This gives an increase of consumption of very nearly 1½ pounds per head; and the comparison with that of France and England will stand nearly thus:

	France.	Great Britain.	U. States.
Population........	35,400,486	27,435,325	23,080,973
Tobacco, lbs......	40,943,088	28,062,978	81,933,572
Per head.........	1 lb. 2½ oz.	1 lb. 0⅓ oz.	3 lbs. 8 oz.
Duty per lb.......	30 cents.	75 cents.	3¾ cents.

The duty on tobacco in the United States is 30 per cent, and on cigars 40 per cent., which at the rates of last year is equal to 3¾ cents per pound on leaf, and 90 cents per pound on cigars. The consumption in England is, no doubt, far greater than the official figures show, because the smuggling must be immense; and a late order has modified the customs so as to permit tobacco not grown in the United States to be imported thence in packages of 80 pounds, instead of 300 pounds, as formerly. This, it is supposed, will give a great impulse to smuggling, and may ultimately work a modification in the duty. In France the tax is not direct, but under the *regie* the average profits of government—above those of the retailers—nearly equal the tax stated. The above figures indicate that the consumption in the United States is overtaking the growth, and there may be soon no tobacco to spare to Europe.

4—STOCK-RAISING IN TEXAS.

On a dozen occasions we have referred to the prodigious powers of Texas as a wool-growing and stock-raising country, and we are sustained upon the last point by the Victoria Advocate:

When we first came to Texas, now something more than six years ago, we made up our mind that the raising of cattle was a very profitable business. We perceived at a moment's glance that they were prolific, thrifty, and raised at little or no expense. We were not without fear, however, that in consequence of the vast numbers of cattle that would be raised, prices would come down considerably in a few years, and thus materially curtail the profits of cattle-raising. Yet how greatly were we mistaken in this particular. Cattle have been constantly on the rise since that time, and are more than twenty per cent. higher than they were in 1845 or '46. In addition to the increasing home demand, the shipping of beef cattle on our steamships to New-Orleans is beginning to assume much importance, requiring some 200 per week, which will rapidly increase in quantity as the facilities for shipping increase.

Assuming, then, as we are fully authorized in doing, that the price of cattle must for many years remain what it is, or go upward, let us see what would be the profits on a given sum of money invested in cattle in Western Texas. We are sure the results will appear fabulous to such as are uninformed touching cattle-raising in Texas. We are equally sure, however, that they are such results as are constantly realized by hundreds of persons in our section of country.

Let us suppose that we invest the sum of five hundred dollars as a commencement. That sum will purchase fifty cows with that many calves, being 100 head.

At the end of the first year we will suppose that out of 50 cows 40 of them will raise calves—our stock will then be	140
At the end of the 2d year, upon a like supposition, we shall have	180
At the end of the 3d year, we shall have: from the original stock 40 calves; from the female two-year-olds, (allowing one-half not to raise calves this year,) 10 calves making together 50, which now gives us	230
At the end of the 4th year we will have as follows: from original stock 40; from three-year-old heifers, (allowing as before for casualties,) 10—making together 70, which added to previous years' stock, gives us	300
At the end of the 5th year, we will have—from the original stock, 40; from 1st year's females 20; from the 2d year's females 20; from the third year's do., (being the two-year olds,) 10—amounting to 90, which gives	390
At the end of the 6th year, let us see how we shall come out; from original stock, 40 from 1st, 2d and 3d year's females, 60; from the 4th or two-year's-olds 10, making 110; we now have	500

head of cattle as the result of our experiment. Will it stand the test? We think it will.

5.—INFLUENCES OF THE EARTH AND ATMOSPHERE UPON COTTON.

WASHINGTON CO., MISS., Oct. 7th, 1852.

Teluric and atmospheric influences perform an important part in producing new, and modifying known varieties of cotton. In 1844, I planted on my Cane Hills plantation two and a half acres of land in freshly-imported Mexican cotton seed, known as the Alvarado, which were presented to me by a merchant of Vicksburg. The stalks, instead of standing erect, trailed, with their heads or tops slightly raised above the ground. They bore but few bolls, which were remarkable for their enormous size, thick hulls, and large green seed, which were badly clothed with a short coarse fibre, and their leaves were among the broadest and thickest I have seen. Determined so completely to destroy them that no trace or vestige should remain, I took some hands and picked up and burnt not merely the seed with the cotton on, but the stalks and everything belonging to them I could find. This same ground I planted the year after in "100 seed," which was the second year of its discovery. While examining and selecting from this cotton in the fall, I met with divers stalks, the seed and cotton of which bore a seeming affinity to the Alvarado. Being familiar with cottons crossed by insects and the wind, it was plain to me that the phenomenon did not arise from commixture. The boll was in all respects right; but the seed, though of proper size and form, had a slight tinge of green, the fibre was perceptibly shorter and coarser than the "100 seed" standard, and the shades of departure too delicate to have been produced by mechanical means. To the ground I had to look for an explanation, and to it I had to ascribe the property of reciprocally producing effects upon plants, and having effects wrought upon it by them of sufficient energy and duration to cause one variety of cotton succeeding another so strikingly to exhibit the peculiar traits of the preceding as to arrest the attention of the most ordinary observer. In 1846, I planted some sugar-loaf seed on about eight acres of land in the lower part of the house field of this plantation, in order to make trial of it on the oldest land I had. My "100 seed" stood in juxtaposition to it—intending, as I knew they would mix, to to have no "100 seed" saved nearer than one hundred yards. The next year I removed the sugar loaf to first year's new ground, and planted these same eight acres in "100 seed." On reaching my plantation in the fall, the overseer proposed a walk down the creek, past this ground, professedly for the purpose of showing me his fine field of cotton below the lane. We walked slowly both ways, talking of plantation and Vicksburg matters, without anything remarkable occurring. In the afternoon of the same day, or the next morning, he enticed me into the same walk, and when on our return stopped opposite the stake driven down the previous year to mark the junction of the two cottons, which he knew I would recollect, manœuvering in a way to place me fronting the cotton field which bordered the road unprotected by a fence, my stock being on the opposite side of the creek. On looking up I saw, with pride and pleasure, that what I had two years before suspected, was demonstrated to be true. The "100 seed" to the right of the stake retained its bushy form and usual appearance, while that on the left (on the eight acres) was perceptibly taller and trimmer, and conforming in general appearance to the sugar-loaf. Said I, "Look here, Mr. Terrell, I was not mistaken in the impression I have had for some time; for see the sugar-loaf has communicated to the ground the power to modify the "100 seed" in every respect, and given to it a tendency which, if sufficiently encouraged, would make it run into sugar-loaf." After combating my opinion for some time, he at length said: "Why, the very negroes have noticed the circumstance; and after much discussion among themselves, have arrived at the same conclusion you have." If I labor under no illusion, and I am sure I do not—for I am, as shown, sustained by persons as non-scientific as myself—agriculturists, horticulturalists, improvers and experimentalists, should be careful not to allow the superior immediately to succeed to the inferior plant, grain, grass, flower, &c., of any kind. H. W. Vick.

6.—MACHINE FOR TOPPING COTTON.

The editor of the Griffin (Ga.) Union has seen the model of a machine for topping cotton, invented by Col. A. A. Dickson, from which great things are expected. The Union describes it as follows:

"The machine is trunnelled along between the rows like a wheelbarrow. The driving wheel propels two sets of revolving blades—one set in a horizontal direction, which tops the cotton—the other in a vertical direction, which lops off the ends of the branches when they are lapping across the rows. It is so constructed that the horizontal blades may be lowered or elevated to suit the height of the cotton, while in operation, at the will of the operator, and is designed to be so lightly constructed that one person may operate with ease, going over ten or twelve acres per day. It tops two rows as it passes along."

7.—REMEDY FOR RUST IN COTTON.

The Newbury (S. C.) Sentinel says that a practical planter, of large experience, recently stated that salt sown at the rate of half a bushel per acre amongst cotton, is a certain remedy against rust. It will not only prevent the rust, but will stay its ravages and restore the diseased plant to its wonted vigor. It is a simple remedy and worth a trial. This is the season for rust, and we give this information that our farmers may try the remedy. If it proves effectual, of which we have not the least doubt, it will be of immense benefit to the planting interests. We would like to receive the result of further trials.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

WHAT SORT OF A FACTORY WILL FIFTEEN THOUSAND DOLLARS BUILD? AND HOW MUCH WORK WOULD SUCH AN ESTABLISHMENT DO?

In addition to the mass of statistics upon the subject of cotton manufactures, to be found in vol. i. of our Industrial Resources, we add the following calculations, which will show the extent of a fifteen thousand dollar factory, what it will produce daily, and what the expenses would be:

I will give the articles of machinery, and the cost price of each article, and then add an ample amount for freights and expense of putting the whole in operation:

For a plain good wooden building	$2,000
For engine and fixtures	2,500
For one willow or cotton breaker	50
For one Whiting's lap winder	425
For six 30 inch cards and clothing	1,320
For railway drawing and fixtures	175
For two drawing heads	150
For one 16 strand speeder	240
For four 144 spindle throstle frames, making 576 spindles, at $3 each	1,728
For twelve looms, at $50 each	600
For one line spindle reel (40 bobbing)	37
For one dressing frame	400
For one yarn press	40
For one 40 inch wool breaker	320
For one 40 inch burr machine	125
For one 30 inch wool card finisher, with condenser attached	340
For two 160 spindle wool mules	720
For clothing for wool cards	125
For shafting, hangers, drums, &c.,	705
For freights and expenses of putting up	3,000
	$15,000

You have about the extent of the establishment—now for its production and expenses per day.

The looms would produce, at the lowest calculation, 30 yards linsey, making 360 yards per day—this, at 32 cents, is	$115 20
The warp spindles would make 100 pounds yarn more than the looms would consume for linsey—this, at 18 cents, is	18 00
	$133 20

The above is a very small calculation in regard to the production of the factory.

The expenses would be as follows:

For 210 pounds cotton, at 8 cents	16 80
For 200 pounds wool, at 30 cents	60 00
For 22 hands, at 40 cents per day	8 80
For 2 cord wood, per day, at $2	4 00
For oil, for machinery and wool	4 00
For engineer per day	2 50
For superintendent	4 00
For clerk	1 50
For interest on $15,000	3 28
For wear and tear, and contingencies	10 00
For insurance	1 32
	$116 20

There are three hundred and thirteen working days in a year; deduct thirty-three days for loss of time, and that would leave two hundred and eighty days. Allowing that number of working days, according to the above calculation the establishment would pay largely over 25 per cent. This is profit sufficient to induce capital to seek investments in the busines; and it only wants a commencement, and we shall have factories springing up all around us.

Two reasons why the manufacturing business should engage all our citizens at this time: 1st., our cotton crop is increasing rapidly every year, and it is time we should contend for a part of the profits arising from its manufacture; and 2d., because it is a money-making business. RANKIN.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1—THE PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD IN MISSOURI.

At present the following system of surveys are being executed simultaneously, by the company at St. Louis:

1st. From St. Louis, by way of the mouth of Pinee, through Springfield, to the southeast corner of the state. This is to have the name proper of the "*Pacific Rail-road.*"

2d. A branch, leaving the main stream at the western edge of St. Louis county, and passing south to the Brown Mountain in St. Francois county.

3d. A branch from the same point, pursuing the bank of the Missouri River, through Jefferson city, thence by Georgetown to the Missouri River, in Jackson county.

These surveys are made in preparation for the assembling of the Legislature, designated by the Governor to be on the 30th of August next.

2—BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAIL-ROAD.

New Depot at Washington.—The new rail-road depot at Washington, built by the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company, is now nearly completed. The dimensions of the station house, situated at the corner of New-Jersey avenue and C. street, are 106 feet front by 68 deep. It presents a beautiful front, built of Connecticut brown stone, and surmounted with a fine quadrangular tower, 70 feet high and 18 feet square, whose sides exhibit the faces of a large well-regulated timekeeper. The main car-house runs diagonally through the square. It is 60 feet wide and 330 feet long. A long glass window extends through the centre of a grooved iron roof, supported by granite pillars, and girt with massive iron tie beams, remarkable for simplicity and strength. The roof was designed by Mr. Bollman, road-master to the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company. Ample platforms on either side render the entrance and exit from the trains easy and convenient. In the night the buildlng is handsomely lighted with gas. The main entrance to the passenger trains is through a beautiful hall, 45 by 68 feet in area, on either side of which are arranged the ticket and freight offices, ladies and gentlemen's saloons. To the latter are attached elegantly furnished dressing rooms, supplied with mirrors, sofas, and numerous little comforts, seldom, if ever, found at railway stations. Messrs. Niernsee & Neilson, of Baltimore, furnished the designs for the building, which has been erected under the superintendence of Mr. John H. McMachen.—*Balt. American.*

3—TEXAS RAIL-ROADS.

It is understood there will be an extra session of the Legislature of Texas in November. A Rail-road Convention assembled not long since in Galveston, of which Dr. Wm. R. Smith was president; Messrs. Menard, Nichols and Hill, vice-presidents; Goddard and Farish, secretaries. A committee, of which L. Sherwood, Esq., was chairman, reported the following propositions:

"1. The construction of Internal Improvements by the state; such improvements to be kept under its exclusive supervision and control; but companies and individuals allowed to engage in the transportation of property and passengers upon them, under such exactions and regulations as may be prescribed.

"2. The establishment of a State Internal Improvement Fund, to be kept separate and distinct from the general, school and all other funds of the state, and faithfully applied to the prosecution and support of internal improvements.

"3. The organization of an Internal Improvement Board of Commissioners, to consist of the Secretary of State, the Controller, Attorney General and five acting commissioners; the acting commissioners to have the personal charge and superintendence of the public works, subject, however, to the direction and supervision of the whole board.

"4. The construction of fourg reat lines of railway, so located as to accommodate, as far as practicable, each section of the state; and adjusted with reference to future railways necessary to be engrafted upon them—the location and plan of said railways to be nearly as follows:

"Commencing at Galveston, crossing West Bay at the most commodious point; thence, running to the head of navigation on Buffalo Bayou, at Houston; thence, northward, through the eastern part of Montgomery county; thence, across the Trinity River, and northward, by the most commodious route, to Red River.

"A branch casting off in Montgomery county, and running northward between the Trinity and Brazos rivers.

"A branch casting off the Galveston road near the head waters of Highland Bayou, running thence to the Brazos River and crossing near Columbia; thence, up the valley of the San Bernard, and between the Brazos and Colorado to the capital of the state.

"A branch casting off the latter road, crossing the San Bernard and Colorado, and running westward on the commodious route, to San Antonio.

"The construction of the said railways to commence at the coast and be prosecuted first to the points where all the branches cast off: then, the four roads to be contemporaneously prosecuted to completion, equal distances as near as may be, until the Southwestern read shall reach San Antonio; the Western road, the state capital; the Eastern road, Red River; and the Northwestern road, an average distance with the other roads from Galveston.

"5. The improvement of the inside coast navigation by canals, and the removal of obstructions, so as to afford complete steamboat navigation for river boats from the Sabine to the Rio Grande; also, the improvement of our navigable rivers.

"The interest on all loans effected for the purpose of internal improvements on the credit of the state, and the interest on all loans contracted for the payment of previous loans, to be faithfully and fully paid by taxation, and from year to year as the same shall accrue. As an additional assurance and security, the present surplus of two millions or more, and its increase, to be added to the internal improvement fund, invested in United States stocks, and pledged to the public creditor for the faithful payment of interest. These provisions both to be secured by the constitution.

"7. After satisfying all just claims against the public domain, fifty million acres of the public lands, or the proceeds of their sale, to be attached to the internal improvement fund, and secured to it by fundamental law.

"8. All revenues to arise from internal improvements, after paying expenses of superintendence and repairs, to be set apart as a sinking fund for the exhaustion of the principal.

"That for the purpose of proposing amendments to the constitution, so as to allow the state to embark in the construction of internal improvements; and for the purpose of proposing other amendments to carry out an internal improvement system, to be adjusted and fixed by fundamental law; we recommend the call of an extra session of the Legislature, to be held as early as January next."

The Committee remark in regard to the resources, etc. of the state:

"The state has already assumed an important position in the eyes of the world. She has something of interesting reputation abroad. Texas, *as Texas*, has a history. Texas is known to the world as an empire in extent. She has a public domain of more than 100,000,000 of acres. She has a population abounding more in actual wealth and natural resources, than any equal number of people on the globe. She is now receiving an accession to her substantial population faster than any other state in the Union. She holds out incentives to immigration, that, in their combination, are not equaled elsewhere. Her entire soil is a self-swarding, self-resuscitating soil, covered with nutritious grasses. Her numerous herds, unfed by the hand of man, indicate a wealth that runs wild. Her capacity for producing sugar, cotton, tobacco and other staples of the South, is equaled only by her capacity for grazing and for the production of fruits, corn and the cereal grains. We can refer to no country that equals Texas in agricultural capacity; and no country in America, whose climate equals hers in wealth and blandness of atmosphere. But while we refer to the vast extent of the state, the abundance of her resources and the incentives to immigration: it must not escape us that these are to be made available to us through the wisdom of a just and beneficent policy—a policy that shall separate the enterprise of our people from rashness; that shall bind the people in harmony of sentiment and action; that shall be steady and undeviating in its operation and certain in its results. Texas has too few in numbers to give efficiency to divided territory and population. She has too much to accomplish to allow of divided effort. If sectional tenacity shall be suffered to confuse the plans of action, nothing essential will be accomplished for many years. If the state hold together, and the people harmonize in concerted action and steady effort, there is no financial achievement, consistent with the vastness of its resources, which the state cannot accomplish.

4.—VIRGINIA INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT CONVENTION.

This body met at Union, Va., on the 19th Aug. last, and continued in session for three days. Gen. P. H. Steinberger, was appointed president; and Jefferson Kinney, secretary. After organizing and appointing a committee of thirteen to report on the business before the convention, a recess was taken till the afternoon. On re-assembling, the convention was addressed in a clear and forcible speech by Mr. Apperson, of Kentucky, president of the Maysville and Big Sandy Rail-road Company, in which the value of a connection of the central line with the rail-roads in Kentucky, was strongly set forth. His argument exhibited irresistible reasons for the speediest possible prosecution and completion of the Central Rail-road.

Among the speakers were Messrs. Wm. B. Preston, Botts, Rives, Gifford, McFarlane, and Prof. De Bow, of the Southern Review. The subject of the report of the committee was a recommendation of the early completion of the several lines already begun, including the Norfolk and Petersburg road; the loaning of state bonds to the several internal improvement companies for the purpose of completing their respective works; and the extension of the works of the James River and Kanawha Company, by a rail-road from Covington or Clifton Forge, to the Ohio River, with a gauge of five feet.

The question of the gauge excited an animated discussion, and it was finally decided to leave it open. The report, as adopted, recommends the immediate construction of a branch of the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road down New River to the mouth of Greenbrier, and a rail-road from the western terminus of the canal to the Ohio River, to be constructed under the auspices of the James River and Kanawha Company.—*Rail-road Journal.*

5.—LOUISIANA RAIL-ROADS.

New-Orleans and Jackson and Northern Road.—The indisposition of Mr. Robb, the president, during the summer, has not interfered with the work. The engineer, Mr. Clarke, with two corps of assistants, has been long in the field. Whilst Mr. Winchester has been at work between Canton and Aberdeen, Mr. Grant has, no doubt, already progressed very far in the location between Florence and Aberdeen. The intention is to connect Aberdeen with Canton and Jackson as speedily as possible, in order to open the Tombigbee valley to New-Orleans.

Opelousas Road.—The engineer, Mr. Gibbs, has been instructed so to prosecute the detailed survey as to be ready to put under contract by October. The company have located sixty-seven miles of the road, starting from the main depot in Algiers, and passing up the river nineteen and a half miles, thence taking the ridge of high land south-westwardly from the Mississippi, (south of Lake des Allemandes,) and crossing the Bayou des Allemandes and striking the high lands of the Lafourche thirty-seven miles from Algiers—thence crossing the Lafourche at fifty-one miles, and passing through the western limits of the beautiful village of Thibodaux, and thence to the high lands of Chuohoula to Tigerville, on Bayou Black, the head of steamboat navigation, the whole distance being 67 miles.

Judge John H. Overton, of St. Landry, has been elected president of the company, to fill the place so efficiently occupied by the late lamented Christopher Adams, Jr.

The selection of depots opposite the city has already been made. The grounds belonging to the heirs of Brown, situated nearly midway between Gretna and Algiers, (nearest to Gretna,) have been purchased by the company, on which proper depot buildings are to be erected, intended for the accommodation of the 1st and 4th districts.

Arrangements have been made, and they will, no doubt, be consummated, for the purchase of the Belleville foundry in Algiers, with a view of converting it into a depot for the accommodation of the 2nd and 3rd districts. This property, houses, lands and machinery, is held at the price of one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars.

6—ARKANSAS RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION.

This convention, which was held in Little Rock, was attended by delegates from Mississippi, Arkansas, and Tennessee.

Among the resolutions passed, was one highly approving of a rail-road connection from St. Louis, through Arkansas, with the Opelousas, New-Orleans, and Great Western road.

The committee on routes reported in favor of a central route from the Mississippi, opposite Memphis, to Fulton, or some point near that place, on Red River. This is regarded as the great trunk line of improvement for the state; and the work on which the people of Arkansas seem inclined to concentrate their energies at present. The committee also reported for the consideration of the convention a route from Helena to Fort Smith; a route from Gaines' Landing on the Mississippi, through the town of Camden to Fulton; and noticed the New-Orleans and Opelousas Great Western Rail-road as a work worthy of encouragement. Among the published proceedings we find the report of Powhatan Robinson, civil engineer, "of an exploration and preliminary reconnoissance of the country between Little Rock and Memphis," in which the cost of building the road is estimated at a fraction over $11,000 per mile.

"*Resolved.*—That this convention appoint a sufficient number of suitable gentlemen, residing in various sections of this state, whose duty it *shall be* to canvass this state, and address the people, and urge upon the importance of building rail-roads generally, and particularly the proposed Central Rail-road from Memphis, Tennessee, to Fulton, on Red River.

7.—NEW-ORLEANS AND ST. LOUIS ROAD.

The Western Journal at St. Louis presses this matter with spirit and zeal. We make our acknowledgments for the following letter, which we copy, and which is the production of a distinguished Missourian.

After speaking of the difficulty of obtaining knowledge in regard to the country for some distance up the St. Francois and Big Black River, he continues:—

"I have from personal observation but a limited knowledge of the country between this point and Helena, extending only from the table lands at the sources of St. Francois and Black Rivers to a short distance below Greenville, in Wayne county.

"It is on those table lands that the beautiful settlements of Bellevieu and Arcadia are made, and between them the Iron Mountain and Pilot Knob rear their iron heads; and with full confidence I can speak of the entire practicability of constructing a rail-road from hence to a point below Greenville, on or near the southern line of the state, on a route more direct, and of lower grade than can be obtained for the same distance in south-eastern Missouri—certainly more so, than from St. Louis to the Iron Mountain. Although the descent from this elevated portion of country is about the same to Greenville as to St. Louis, the descent is easier and more direct to the former. The elevation above St. Louis, taken at the base of the Iron Mountain by Major Morell, in his survey made in 1837, was found to be 800 feet. In ascending from St. Louis, the very meandering course of Big River, with its numerous tributaries running from almost every point of the compass, will occasion the crossing of several dividing ridges, which must greatly enhance the cost of construction. But I am happy to learn a corps of engineers are now on the line, making a reconnoissance for a rail-road from St. Louis to the neighborhood of the Mountain and Knob, which will give you more certain and accurate information.

"To descend southwardly from the Iron Mountain to Greenville, two routes present themselves by streams, which take their rise almost at the base of the Pilot Knob. The more western, by Bruer's Creek, I think, would be preferred, because more direct, and would save bridging the St. Francois. The eastern route would penetrate more deeply into the heart of Madison county, approaching near Mine la Motte, but is more circuitous, and would occasion the construction of two bridges across the St. Francois.

"There is a point below Greenville, on the west side of the St. Francois, you are forced to, in constructing a rail-road from St. Louis south, with a view to connect with the Holly Spring Rail-road in Mississippi. A connection with Memphis is impracticable, by reason of the extensive lakes and swamps on the lower St. Francois, *which never can be reclaimed.* The point I alluded to is a narrow neck of land below Greenville, between the St. Francois and Big Black: it is low, but not a swamp—having a slough across it, through which, in times of very high floods, the water of the St. Francois passes into Black River. Immediately beyond this, as I learn from good authority, Crowley's Ridge rises and forms the divide between the swamps and lower small tributaries of those two rivers, continuing its course in a direction to the neighborhood of Helena, in Arkansas.

"Having some acquaintances in that region of our state in whom I can place the most implicit confidence, and who are familiar with the profile of the country between the lower St. Francois and Black Rivers, I will address them on the subject, and forward their communications when received.

"There is no portion of our state more interesting, and yet so little known, as the section to which this subject refers—none, in my mind, more interesting to the prosperity of St. Louis—she feels and is proud of her commanding commercial position, but to maintain it against the numerous rivals that are being created by the magnificent projects of internal improvements which are now going forward east, and south and north of her, she must exert herself, and secure a system of manufactures, one of which it is now in her power to make exclusively her own, by the construction of the rail-road you advocate, and thus become the Birmingham of the vast valley of the Mississippi.

"The line of rail-road you have suggested, would traverse more than one hundred miles of the richest iron deposits on the globe, from the Merrimac to the swamps; scarce one section of land can be passed without finding on it deposits of iron ore, and in many localities in astonishing quantities. Notwithstanding the vast amount of iron ore found in the Mountain and Knob, I am of opinion Wayne county contains more iron ore than any county in the state, and perhaps nearly as much water power; yet it is useless, and the lands of that county valueless, even at government price, except in a very few localities, because she is cut off from an easy and direct access to the Mississippi by the swamps extending from Cape Girardeau to the mouth of the St. Francois.

"In this elevated region we have no coal formations; it is mostly primitive—yet we have abundance of timber, and only want a cheap and ready transportation to the Mississippi, to enable us to rival all others in the manufacture of iron. That we can make as good iron as any produced on the globe, and under a corrrect system of management cheaper than can be furnished by any state of this Union, is easily demonstrated.

"St. Louis, situated as she is, in the heart of extensive coal fields, should contain the finishing shops of our iron manufacture, and the numerous structures from it, that have become necessary to man, for his convenience, security, and pleasure. Why is it that Pittsburgh, and other cities on the Ohio, can afford to pay us an *extra price* for our pig metal and blooms; and after paying all cost of transportation and incidental expenses, return it to us in a finished state, selling it with a profit? Pittsburgh, like St. Louis, has naturally a strong commercial position, and has only been able to maintain it by calling to her aid, the great coal fields at her door, in building up her iron and other manufactures, thus making herself a point of convenience and attraction to the merchant and trader. Your city should look to this example, and thus maintain her pre-eminence as the commercial city of the great West. The vast importance of the road you advocate, in a commercial point of view, must be readily seen by the enterprising men of St. Louis. It is surprising that New-Orleans and Southern Mississippi should have slept so long, dreaming in the security of their commercial position, while Tennessee, Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina, were spreading their network of rail-roads to rob her of her trade. It is well, if it is not too late, —your projection is the only one to save them any respectable part. The coalition has been strengthened by the addition of Illinois, Kentucky and Western Tennessee. Memphis, Cairo, and Paducah, are great connecting points, and will fight hard against any rail-road improvements, connecting St. Louis with a point on the Mississippi below them.

8.—KENTUCKY RAIL-ROADS.

Covington and Lexington Rail-road.—The Common Council of the city of Covington passed an ordinance on the 26th August, authorizing the president of the board to indorse the bonds of the Lexington and Covington Rail-Road Company to the amount of $200,000.

Shelbyville and Harrodsburg Rail-road.—We are authorized to say that the whole section of the Harrodsburg Rail-road, from its junction with the Frankfort Rail-road, near Hobb's station, to Shelbyville, is under contract, that a considerable number of hands are now at work upon it, and that the number will immediately be increased to two hundred. Engineers are at work between Shelbyville and Harrodsburg with a view to the location of the route.—*Lou. Jour.*

9.—NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA RAIL-ROADS.

The cars on the Charlotte road are running beyond the Catawba bridge for several miles. The King's Mountain road is finished for 25 miles, and the cars for Chesterville are only distant seven miles from Yorkville.

The Centre Rail-road through North Carolina, connecting with the Charlotte road, is nearly entirely graded. It is also in discussion to connect Charlotte with Jonesboro', Tennessee.

The following is a list of South Carolina rail-roads:

Names of Rail-roads.	*Compl'd. Miles.*	*In pro. Miles.*	*Proj'd. Miles.*
1. South Carolina—from Charleston to Hamburg	136	..	..
2. Columbia Branch—from Branchville to Columbia	67	..	..
3. Camden Branch—from Junction (43 miles from Branchville) to Camden	37	..	..
4. Wilmington to Manchester—from Camden Junction to Wilmington, N. C. (total 168 miles)	34	92	..
5. Charlotte and South Carolina—from Columbia to Charlotte, N. C. (total 112 miles)	78	18	..
6. Greenville and Columbia—from Columbia to Greenville,	80	61	..
7. Union and Spartanburg—from Alston on Greenville and Columbia (No. 6) to Union and Spartanburg	..	..	66
8. Laurens—from Newbury Court-house (on No. 6) to Laurens	75	8	..
9. Abbeville Branch—from Cokesbury (on No. 6) to Abbeville,	..	12	..
10. Anderson Branch—from —— (on No. 6) to Anderson Court House	..	11	..
11 Raburn Gap—from Anderson Court-house through South Carolina, Georgia, North Carolina, and Tennessee, to a junction with Hiwassee Rail-road (about 170 miles)	..	..	38
Total	447	203	98

RECAPITULATION.

Length of Rail-road completed	447	miles.
" " in progress	203	"
" " projected	98	"
Total length of rail-roads	748	"

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI, AND A NAVY-YARD AT NEW-ORLEANS.

The people of New-Orleans having set about a radical reform in all their modes of government and business enterprise, have taken up at last with great interest the vital matter of deepening the mouth of the Mississippi, and with it the question long in discussion of a navy-yard at New-Orleans. An act of tardy justice having been vouchsafed to them at the last session of Congress, in an appropriation of $75,000 towards the first-named measure, a reasonable hope exists that it will be carried through by other appropriations, whatever the expense involved, and that the navy-yard itself, from its obvious importance to the commercial interests and maritime security of the whole southern and western seaboard, will command early and prompt attention.

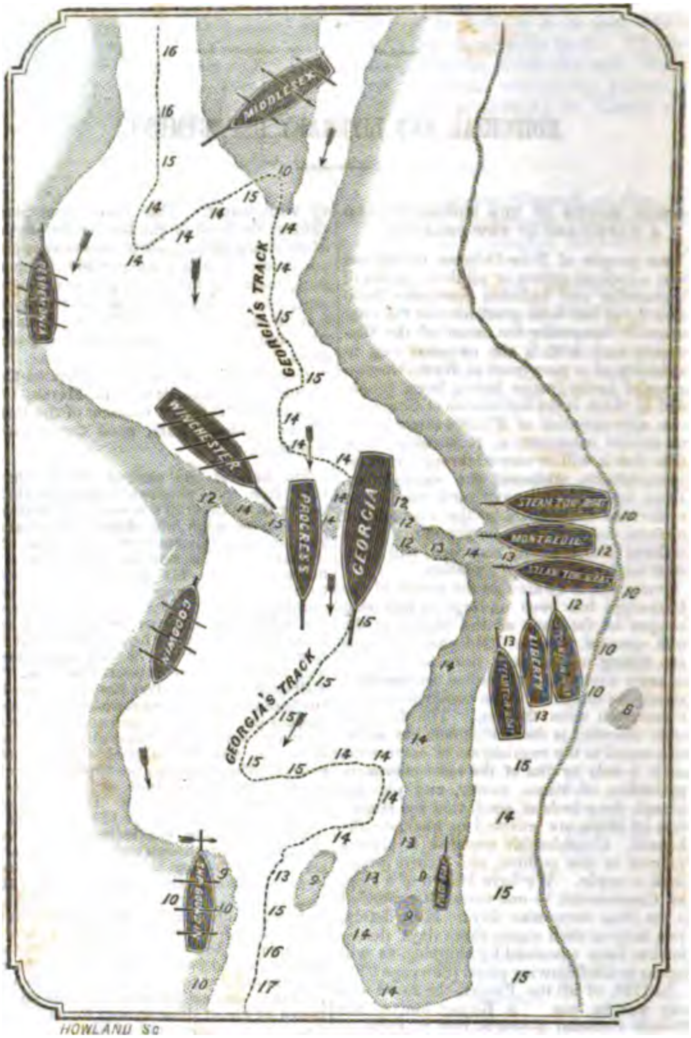
Every one is aware that the mouth of the Mississippi has been undergoing incessant changes as far back as the history of the river can be traced. Old channels have been filling up and new ones forming; at the same time that a continued sedimentary deposit has forced the delta itself continually to encroach upon the sea. The depth of water afforded in these channels has never been equal to the requisitions of commerce, and it is only by dint of the most enormous application of steam power, and plowing through deep beds of sand, that the largest class of ships are enabled to navigate the channel. Considerable expense is always incurred in this manner, and delays prejudicial to trade. We have known of a ship, the Coromandel, in one instance, grounded in the Pass thirty-nine days. More lately, from forty to even eighty-three days' detention has been sustained by shipping, as will appear in the following plate. (See page 530.)

In 1720, of all the Passes, the *south* one only was in use. A Report among the French Colonial Records, now in Paris, of date about 1730, gives the depth from ten to twelve feet on the bars, varying each year according to the violence of the winds, etc. Another Report by M. Paris gives a depth of seventeen feet to one of the Passes which had hitherto been but twelve feet only, and argues that twenty-two feet might be insured by dredges. The employment of two vessels three months in the year was tried during a portion of this time by the West India Company, but it worked badly. "A *flute* was then placed inside of the bar and sunk into eighteen feet by means of wells built for that purpose, inside such vessel, and filled up with water. This vessel was placed close to the bank of the bar for the purpose of receiving the cargoes of vessels that could not cross. It was soon perceived that the flute, receiving the whole power of the current, was forcing a passage of twenty-five feet through the Pass. The whole matter was immediately communicated to government."

Examined before the Committee on Commerce of the Legislature, in March, 1846, William D. Talbot, a resident of the Balize for twenty-five years, used the following language:

> The bars at the various Passes change very often. The channels sometimes change two or three times in a season. Occasionally one gale of wind will change the channel. The bars make to seaward every year. The Southwest Pass is now the main outlet. It has been so for only three years, as at that time there was as much water in the Northeast Pass as in it. The Southeast Pass was the main ship channel twenty years ago; there is only about six feet water in that Pass now, and where it was deepest then, there is only a few inches of water at this time. The visible shores of the river have made out into the Gulf two or three miles within his memory. Besides the deposit of mud and sand, which form the bars, there frequently arise bumps or mounds near the channel, which divert its course. These bumps are supposed to be the production of salt springs, and sometimes are formed in a very few days. They sometimes rise four or five feet above the surface of the water. He knew one instance when some brick that were thrown overboard from a vessel outside the bar, in three fathoms water, were raised above the surface by one of these banks, and were taken to the Balize and used in building chimneys. In another instance, an anchor which was lost from a vessel, was lifted out of the water, so that it was taken ashore. About twenty years ago a sloop, used as a lighter, was lost outside the bar in a gale of wind; several years afterwards she was raised by one of these strange formations, and her cargo was taken out of her.

Lieut. Poole, of the United States Engineers, in his Report of February, 8, 1847, remarks: "Great changes have taken place in the last fifteen years in this (the Southeast) and the Northeast Pass, which has been deepening while this has been filling up." It is stated where the island, shown upon sheet No. 3, now is, there was at that period six fathoms water. The process seems to be still going on; the space between this island and Antonio being nearly covered by a shoal, the centre of which is already above water. During a few days that two



REPRESENTING THE APPEARANCE OF THE BAR, MAY 16, 1852.

(Scale 600 feet to the Inch.)

Drawn by DAVID D. PORTER, Capt. U. S. N., and commanding Mail Steamship Georgia, and published by order of Committee Chamber of Commerce; Caldwell, Stanton, Owen, Skipwith and Sumner.

VESSELS ON NEW-ORLEANS BAR.

	Tons.	Cotton Bales.	Value.	Detained.		Tons.	Cotton Bales.	Value.	Detained.
Middlesex*...	1,420	4,500	$160,000	40 days	Steamer Georgia....	2,500			
Desdemona. .	625	2,300	80,000	35 "	Ship Goodwin......	600	800, &c.	$40,000	8 days
Winchester. .	1,475	5,800	205,000	62 "	" Montreuil.....	600	2,000	70,000	7 "
Progress.....	1,400	4,200	105,000	45 "	" Liberty	740	2,000	70,000	5 "
						9,370	21,600	$795,000	
Add value ships and steamer								705,000	
Value of property detained								$1,500,000	

* The Middlesex and cargo got damaged (by collision) on the bar $30,000, and returned to repair. Many other vessels than those above were aground at the same time, awaiting a swell from southeasterly gales.

ships were lying aground on the middle bank of the Southwest Pass, in eight feet water, a channel formed between them. through which a ship of *sixteen feet draught* passed out without obstruction!

The project of deepening or improving these outlets has been for a long time before the general government, and special reports upon the subject prepared by the engineer service after extended surveys.

Three methods have been principally insisted upon with different degrees of merit and expense:

1st. To deepen by dredging-machines one or two of the Passes.

2d. To close up all but one of them where they leave the river trunk.

3d. To cut a canal from the river to the gulf.

All of these are regarded practicable. Supposing the first and second adopted together, Captain Chase estimates the expense as follows, to give sufficient depth of water:

Dredging N. E. Pass	$160,000
Do. S. W. Pass	210,000
	$370,000

with an annual subsequent expenditure of $72,000 more.

Closing the Passes	$214,500
Jette at N. E. Pass	100,000
Jette at S. W. "	182,500
Contingencies, &c	30,000
	$527,000

The line of the ship canal is proposed from a point two and a quarter miles below Fort Jackson, and extending seven miles to the shore of the Gulf, and thence by a jette, 1760 yards to 30 feet water. The canal to be 100 feet wide at top, and thirty feet deep. The cost of this magnificent work is estimated thus:

For the lock and guard work	$300,000
For trunk of the Canal	2,669,333
Jettes and Breakwater	2,463,996
Channel between	3,420,000
Contingencies	1,146,671
	$10,000,000*

We have not the figures for any later estimates, but have no doubt that those which are furnished will exceed rather than fall below the actual mark of expenditure.

How insignificant is this amount to a nation whose annual revenues are nearly $50-000,000, and whose annual foreign commerce is between 4 and $500,000,000?

How insignificant is it too when it is considered that by opening the navigation of this great inland sea the commerce of half the states of the Union is freed from its fetters, and allowed to float to the great ocean, ten millions of people are accommodated, and two hundred millions of commerce (for that amount enters or departs annually through the Mississippi) is relieved from the onerous taxation which it pays at present! Upon the single item of freights alone it is estimated that the use of smaller vessels to which the shallowness of water is driving the commerce of the west, instead of those of largest size and capacity, will be attended with a loss of $2 per bale, or $2.800,000 annually upon the cotton crop, and equally as much perhaps upon the total of other articles of export. In all about $5,000,000 per annum!

The diagram page 530 shows a loss from the detention of $1,500,000 worth of property, which in a single year would pay for almost the entire improvement, if we calculate interest, loss of markets, important mails, etc.

How loudly and earnestly do the necessities of the West demand the opening of this river, and upon what pretext can Congress delay for a single hour so great and national a measure? In Congress all the power vests. Neither New-Orleans nor Louisiana, nor any sister state, nor all of them together, have any power to move or to act. The overshadowing power of Congress covers and embraces all. How great then the responsibility, and to how strict an accountability should that body be held! Even Mr. Calhoun, with all his doctrines of strict construction, could not but perceive and acknowledge in his profound and masterly report, that the Mississippi is a law unto itself—an "inland sea," and in its improvements altogether a matter of national concern.

What is this Mississippi River?

"It has its source near the boundary between the United States and the British possessions; it passes through the commercial as well as the geographical heart of the Union, and finally empties into the Gulf of Mexico. Bordering on the west bank of the river are the states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, and the Territory of Minnesota; on the east bank are Wisconsin, Illinois, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Mississippi making two continuous tiers of states, spanning the entire Union from British America to the Gulf of Mexico. All the great rivers that flow from the Rocky Mountains, through Nebraska, the Indian Territory, and upper Texas—the Missouri, the Platte, the Arkansas, the Canadian, and the Red rivers, with their numerous navigable branches—empty into the Mississippi. On the east side are several rivers in Wisconsin and Illinois, the Ohio and its tributaries, including the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers, and minor streams from the state of Mississippi—making fifteen states and territories in the richest and most productive portion of the habitable globe, whose commerce naturally flows into the channel of the Mississippi river. If such a river be not a national highway for the United States, then the Atlantic ocean is not. The border of the Atlantic coast, from the state of Mississippi to the British line, has Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, New-Jersey, New-York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Maine—being fourteen states. Add Pennsylvania and Vermont, which are not immediately on the coast, and there would be sixteen states. But the western part of Pennsylvania has a large commerce on the Ohio, and thence down the Mississippi river. So that the commerce of the Mississippi river arises from as many states and territories as border the Atlantic coast from Maine to the Mississippi line, thereby making the Mississippi river as much a national highway for all the purposes of commerce and national defence as the Atlantic ocean itself. No single state has the sole right to improve this river. The Constitution forbids all the states from making compacts or agreements with one another, and therefore the Mississippi cannot be improved by a combination of a part or all of the fifteen states and territories immediately interested in its navigation."

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* See De Bow's Industrial Resources, Vol. 2, art. Mississippi River, etc.

We come to the question of a navy yard at New-Orleans. An appropriation has already been made for purchasing a site for a *naval depot*. The exposed condition of New-Orleans was strikingly manifested in 1815, when the British came up to its very doors. Mr. Jefferson, in his messages of 1806–7 and 9, urged the defences of the city with great ability and power. In 1822, Mr. Monroe said, "that the seizure of no part of the Union, could affect so deeply and so vitally the immediate interests of so many states, etc., etc., as the seizure of that city;" and he directed Gen. Bernard, a distinguished European engineer, to reconnoitre carefully the whole gulf, with the view of affording the required security. Mr. Adams and General Jackson called frequent attention to the matter.

Notwithstanding these facts, up to the present moment nothing whatever has been done, whilst the navy yards, dry docks, fortifications, etc., of the North, have received the most enormous sums. With a shore line of coast from Cape Henry, exclusive of bays, rivers, &c., to the northeastern boundary of *nine hundred and eighty-seven miles*, the North has *seven* navy yards, whilst upon a shore line from Cape Florida to the Rio Grande, *one thousand six hundred and ninety-five miles*, the southwest has but *two* such yards!!

This subject will no doubt be urged upon Congress hereafter with great zeal. The representatives of Louisiana have already done themselves honor in the spirit with which they have moved, and the success, although partial, which they have achieved. Nor have the Chamber of Commerce and its committee acted in any other than the true and catholic spirit. We have before us an interesting memorial from the general council to the Secretary of the Navy, and also a report of Mr. Labouve, chairman of the committee on Federal Relations of the State of Louisiana. From the last we cannot do better than to make some most interesting extracts, with which our present paper must close:

"The peculiar geographical formation of Louisiana subjects it to the liability of invasion from lawless banditti; who, in time of war, could make sudden descents on the inhabitants, carrying with them the destruction of life and property. Even a legitimate enemy would find strong inducements, from the facility of access, to carry on a harrassing predatory warfare. On the east of New-Orleans there is a chain of lakes, extending from the Gulf far into the interior, which connect with the Mississippi by bayous which enter those lakes. The waters of one of those lakes approach to within a few miles of the city of New-Orleans. On the west, there are numerous deeply indented bays, which are united with the Mississippi far above New-Orleans by the various bayous connecting these estuaries in the Gulf with the river. This peculiar feature in the physical formation of Louisiana makes it very assailable by an enemy, and rendering land fortifications of very little value against his incursions.

"The Gulf, too, is dotted with numerous islands of a size so insignificant as scarcely to be worthy of the notice of the geographer, which, on this very account, induce pirates in unsettled times to seek resort there as a secure hiding-place, from which they issue to make attacks on the commerce of the Gulf, and even to make inroads on the inhabitants bordering on it.

"English, French and Spanish cruisers are to be found in the Gulf and the neighboring seas. In the event of a war, the Gulf would be the first, because the most vulnerable point of attack. It would be so sudden, that all the evil would be accomplished before relief could be had from our many navy yards at the North: and hence the necessity of having always a permanent fleet in our waters. Our great commercial naval rival, at the distance of more than three thousand miles from our shores, is better supplied with resorts for her vessels of war in the neighborhood of the Gulf than we are ourselves; England has her naval stations in the southern waters, beginning at Bermuda, dotted along through the Bahamas, the Leeward Islands, and finally at the important island of Jamaica. This great naval power, with consummate wisdom, makes it a point, at whatever cost, to have in the neighborhood of the cruising ground of her fleets, all over the world, naval stations to which they can resort for the purpose of supplies, of repairs and refitting, from which they can sally for the purposes of attack.

The committee think it would be the part of wisdom in us to follow her example in this respect.

"The committee think that the facts and views which they have presented, clearly demonstrate the necessity of having a permanent naval force in the Gulf for the protection of its commerce and of its coasts. They are equally convinced, that this will never be secured to them until a navy yard is established at New-Orleans. The only existing navy yard on the Gulf is insufficient to accommodate the increased naval force which the wants of the Gulf so clearly demand at this moment, and which the signs of the times clearly indicate will still more be required in the future. An increased naval force, without the necessary appendage of a navy yard to which it can resort to supply all the wants of repairs, munitions of war and provisions, in the immediate neighborhood of its cruising ground, would be worse than useless, for it might cause it to fall an easy prey to an enemy, having these facilities near at hand, as is the case with the English naval forces in the Gulf. Any increase of a naval force in the Gulf must, in the nature of things, therefore, be preceded by the establishment of a navy yard near to its waters, and this portion of the Union need never expect that protection from the government which they have a right to claim, until this preliminary step is first adopted.

"Another reason—and which the committee think an important one—for the establishment of a navy yard on the Gulf is this: The improvements of the day have made steam the great element of the propelling power of naval armaments. With vessels of this description, our principal rival on the ocean—and indeed the other lesser powers—are well provided. We can only successfully cope with our enemies by being well provided with vessels of similar construction. Steam vessels of various sizes are peculiarly adapted to the Gulf, and is what is most required. The power to move with great rapidity from point to point, which steam now gives to vessels of war, has so changed the mode of attack, that sailing vessels and land fortifications cannot now afford that protection which they formerly did. For defence we must—as a natural result of this state of things—rely on naval armaments. Without these, the committee, though reluctant to avow the fact, are nevertheless compelled to say, that New-Orleans is now nearly as much exposed as in 1814, when on account of its defenceless condition the British were induced to invade our shores. All remember the deep anxiety which this occasioned throughout the whole Union. The committee have shown with what solicitude, after the war, the necessity of suitable defences was then pressed on the consideration of Congress by Mr. Monroe. The committee think the subject is now even more than then worthy of all the consideration which the government at Washington can bestow on it, and that, too, without any further delay. A navy yard, then, of the proper kind for the steam naval force required on these waters should be the first thing decided on, in order that all its arrangements should be made in view of the particular kind of force which would find its shelter there. In the opinion of the committee, it is not only important that an additional naval force should be permanently stationed in the Gulf, and an additional navy yard should be established in its waters, but it is of the highest importance that it should be done without further delay. Europe rests on a slumbering volcano. The times are pregnant with great events which before long will develop themselves. When the outbreak occurs on the continent of Europe, the conflict will be one of unusual asperity, and there cannot be a doubt, that the contest between liberal opinions on the one hand, and despotism on the other, will involve all the principal powers of Europe. The experience of the world and our own lead to the conviction, that however sincere may be our efforts to preserve a strict neutrality, we will be drawn into the contests of the old world, and that experience admonishes us to be prepared before hand. It is equally clear, that should collisions occur with other nations, the ocean will be the great arena of conflict, and the first to be attacked will be the exposed coast of the Gulf, and the commerce passing through it. The rich treasures from our possessions on the Pacific, passing through the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf—amounting to millions of gold—will offer, as of old the galleons did to the buccaneers, the strongest inducements to the cupidity of an enemy.

A timely precaution will save us millions, and thus will protect the interests of our fellow-citizens, and at the same time will preserve the honor of our flag untarnished.

"The position of New-Orleans points to that city as the proper place for a navy yard. Perhaps there is no locality in the whole Union so admirably adapted to the purposes of a navy yard for steamers as New-Orleans. This, as your committee have already stated, must be the force to be employed in order to give an efficient protection to the Gulf. All the wants required by this description of vessels are to be found there in the greatest abundance, and of every variety. What is remarkable, too, is that nearly all the states bordering on the Ohio and the Mississippi can supply respectively all the different materials required for naval steamers. Western Pennsylvania can furnish the iron in all its varieties of workmanship; Western Virginia, timber and coal;* Kentucky and Missouri, hemp; Illonois, lead; Ohio and

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* The bituminous can be furnished at $4 50 to $5 per ton or load, cheaper by $2 50 than is paid by the Cunard steamers for an inferior article, and very nearly the price at which anthracite is supplied on the Atlantic seaboard

Indiana, flour and pork; Tennessee from her foundries can supply cannon and ball. At New Orleans, too, all the persons required for steamers can always at the shortest notice be procured, from the coal heaver and fireman, including deck hands, to the engineers who direct the machinery. The numerous steamboats on the Mississippi afford the best school for training persons to all the various duties required on board of steamers. These men are known to be the bravest, hardiest any where to be found. Even for the purposes of building vessels of war, New-Orleans is most advantageously situated, for she is in close proximity to the live-oak of Florida, and the western part of Louisiana can furnish the best kinds of cedar and other varieties of wood useful in the construction of vessels.

"Hitherto many difficulties existed at New-Orleans which were unfavorable for the purposes of a naval station, and probably this is one cause why that city has been overlooked by the general government. But these difficulties have passed away, and the committee cannot possibly conceive any reason why New-Orleans should not be a naval station, but on the contrary they think there are strong and controlling considerations why there should be one there. Formerly the insalubrity of the climate was one reason operating against the establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans; now it is different, for not only is the city not annually visited with the usual yellow fever, but the disease when it does appear is robbed of its former terrors by the skill of the modern practitioner. Formerly it was difficult to obtain even ordinary laborers except at very high rates of wages. The difficulty of obtaining mechanics was still greater, and some species of that kind of labor could not be procured at all. Now laborers can be procured not only in abundance, but also at very low rates of wages. Artisans too of every variety of mechanic skill, can be obtained at prices probably comparing with northern cities.

"Formerly the bar at the mouth of the Mississippi presented a difficulty which is now obviated, for modern skill has applied to naval architecture the happy combination of increased capacity of hull, with diminution of draft. This remark particularly applies to steamers, of which many have entered New-Orleans—crossing the bar with ease—of sufficient size to bear all the armament required in a war steamer. Formerly the distance of New-Orleans from the seat of government was a serious objection on account of the length of time required to communicate from Washington to that city. Now that difficulty is removed, for by means of rail-roads already in operation, and by means of others in process of construction, which will soon be finished, New-Orleans can be reached in four days from the seat of government. Besides which we have that greatest of modern inventions, the telegraph—by which the orders of the Secretary of the Navy can be instantaneously communicated to the officers in the station at New-Orleans. The advantages of the telegraph ought of themselves to suggest the immediate establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans, for many occasions may arise—as have already occurred—where promptitude of action in relation to our affairs with Cuba—with Mexico and with other powers having possessions in the Caribbean sea, would be every thing to accomplish the objects of the government. With a permanent naval force in the Gulf, and with a navy-yard at New-Orleans for its rendezvous, a few hours only would be required to communicate the orders of the government, a few hours more would be all sufficient to place our vessels at the required point. The committee have reason to think that it can be satisfactorily demonstrated, that had there been a navy-yard at New-Orleans during the late war with Mexico, the saving alone in the cost of transporting munitions of war would have been more than sufficient to have established a navy-yard there, besides the great advantage of giving more efficiency to our naval military forces employed against Mexico.

"In connection with this view of the subject, there is another, which is well set forth in the memorial of the councils, but which cannot too frequently be impressed on the attention of the government. It is the great advantage which our naval force in the Pacific would derive from the establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans. There cannot be a doubt that war steamers will be the kind of naval force, which before long will be the one which will be mainly relied on for our purposes in the Pacific. The government very wisely has already ordered two or three of our steamers there. From New-Orleans, whence, as has already been shown by the committee, supplies for victualing, for repairs, and in the shape of munitions of war, can be had in full abundance of every variety, our steamers could be readily supplied. From the Pacific terminus of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec information can be transmitted to Washington via New-Orleans in less than five days. On this point, the memorial very properly says: 'It is difficult to over-estimate the importance to the government of this facility connected with the operations of our naval forces in the Pacific, for in the event of additional forces being required there, which will have to be sent from this side, or for supplies, or for articles of repair, orders can be immediately transmitted from Washington on the same day to New-Orleans, and from the supplies there, the wants of our Pacific squadron will at once be met. Over this very same route of Tehuantepec, which brought the quick intelligence demanding relief, can the materials required in the Pacific be transported in a short time at reasonable cost.'

"This view of the matter alone, without any other consideration, ought, in the opinion of the committee, to be sufficient to induce the government to establish forthwith a navy-yard at New-Orleans. But when it is borne in mind, that in a very short time a large amount of trade from the Asiatic world, and of great value, will pass over the various Isthmus routes, and will concentrate in the Caribbean sea and the Gulf; the necessity for an additional naval station in those waters will be apparent to all.

"In other respects New-Orleans is most advantageously situated for all the purposes of a navy-yard. Her distance from the ocean is sufficient for protection from sudden attack, and sufficiently near for prompt and efficient action to the vessels stationed there; in fact a naval force stationed at New-Orleans would prove the best protection to this city. A war steamer placed at the English Turn below the city would successfully defy the approach of an enemy in that quarter.

"The committee think the time has arrived when it is the imperative duty of this section of the country to demand from the general government an increase in the Gulf of a naval force, and of the kind suited to the improvement of modern naval armaments, with a navy-yard at New-Orleans. It has been the aim of the committee in the previous part of the report to show that it is not only the states of the valley of the Mississippi and those bordering on the Gulf, which are interested in a navy-yard at New-Orleans; but that all the Atlantic commercial states are equally interested with them."

2.—CANADIAN RECIPROCITY.

Six or eight months ago, we declared in the Review, that unless our government would take immediate measures to reciprocate the liberal policy of the Canadians, differential duties would be imposed by them against our manufactures, and all their canals closed to our commerce. The Canadian duties upon American produce average only about 12½ per cent., whilst our duties on theirs average as high as 23½ per cent.

The declaration which we made has proved almost a prophecy, as will appear in the extract we give from a late number of the Herald:

"The ministry, we learn by the papers, are about to adopt a policy of retaliation, in order to compel us to accede to their proposals for free trade with the British colonies. They threaten to exclude us from the Welland Canal, by raising the tolls levied on American vessels passing through that channel. They intend to propose prohibitory duties of seven and a half and twelve and a half per cent. on certain articles of merchandise imported from this country, and to allow the same articles to enter Canada, by the St. Lawrence, free of this additional duty."

Is it not extraordinary that a great commercial nation like the United States should ever be desirous to pursue a policy less liberal than her neighbors, and having experienced the benefit of free and unrestricted traffic between her own members, should not be willing to admit there is something essentially good and desirable in such traffic?

We extract from a memorial, prepared by Ira Gould, to be laid before the Board of Trade of Montreal and addressed to the Governor-General.

1. That in the opinion of your Memorialists, it should be the policy and aim of the Provincial Government to seek for, and obtain, in the best practicable form, and in the speediest manner, *complete and entire free trade with the United States*, as well in all foreign articles imported into the two countries, as of articles the growth and manufacture of the same.

2. That in the opinion of your Memorialists, the only practicable way of securing this object is, by the adoption by the Provincial Government, of the American Tariff of Duties on all importations from sea, and by the free admission of the productions and manufactures of each country into the other; thus assimilating the commercial interests of the two countries in *the way* that is most desirable they should be assimilated.

3. That amongst the details of this arrangement would be included the complete extinction of all Custom-Houses on both sides of the frontier, retaining only those in Canada at the ports of Quebec and Montreal, and also of a just and equitable apportionment of the amount of duties received, to the government of each country.

4. That for the purpose of perfecting this arrangement, and as a further inducement thereto, the right of free navigation of the St. Lawrence, and our inland waters, with the use of our harbors and canals, should be granted to the United States upon the payment of the same tolls and dues as are paid by ourselves.

3.—THE SLAVEHOLDING STATES.

Dr. Daniel, in the Circular of the Southern Agricultural Society of Georgia, a paper we referred to in our last, thus concludes, in language all must admit to be strong and truthful:

"To the Slaveholding States a bountiful Providence has supplied every element of power and greatness. We have climates and soils which advantageously furnish the cereals and the grasses—hemp and flax. The best tobacco climate lies within the northern line of our dominion, and cotton, sugar and rice find the most suitable temperatures and soils further south. Many of the tropical fruits grow well on our southern borders. Our country is abundantly watered by the noblest rivers. Bays, inlets and harbors indent our coasts. Our mountain ranges, with their rich table-lands, abound in coal, metals, and marbles. We have excellent climates for every season of the year. And now the enterprise of our state governments and numerous private companies are carrying the rail-road with accelerated progress in all directions, uniting our East with our West, combining our North with our South. All these afford capacity, facility and dispatch, to reward the cultivators of the soil, on whose labors repose the prosperity, the very life-blood of every other pursuit. These—all these invoke us to consult together, to devise and concert measures best calculated to elevate us and aggrandize our power, and to combine our energies and vindicate ourselves, our institutions, and our country,—and make it what God has decreed it shall be, great, powerful and beneficent to the purposes of civilization and Christianity, and consequently to the great cause of humanity.

4.—THE ROAD TO WEALTH.

The Road to Wealth; a Practical Treatise on Business: or how to get, save, spend, give, lend, and bequeath money; with an inquiry into the chances of success, and causes of failure in business. By Edwin T. Freedley. Also, Prize Essays, statistics, miscellanies, and numerous private letters from successful and distinguished business men. Second Edition. Philadelphia: Lippencott, Grambo & Co. 1852.

The Road to Wealth—Every body is in search of it; they take the high-ways and the by-ways; they sunder consanguinities, affinities, friendships; they are at the poles, or the equator; they brave the deep, struggle with the savage, endure storm, lightnings, fatigues, privations of every earthly (sometimes every spiritual) good, in search of it. A hundred times they lose themselves, but still return to the search. A thousand roads are running this way, that way, the other way, crossing each other at right angles, obliquely, east, north, south, west, confounding themselves together, resembling each other in every respect; and yet one of these only is THE road, whilst all the others are snares and traps, leading the unwary into bankruptcy and ruin. *How to find this right road!*

The book whose title is at the head of our article, proposes to teach the way. What a boon! Who will not buy—("put money in thy purse")—The Royal Road to Wealth! Mr. Freedley declares in his introduction, p. vi.:

"Inasmuch as one man's wisdom or experience would be very insufficient in this great search for truth, WHICH HAS A BIG BAG OF MONEY AT THE END, we have not undertaken to rely on our own acquired skill in money-making, but have made free with the knowledge of others. The principles, the facts, the maxims, we design to set forth, are partly original, and partly compiled. Few men have written books without saying something wise on the subject of money-getting, and what we have learned from divers sources respecting this matter may be found in the following pages."

The work embraces fifteen chapters:

Chap. I. Business; Introductory.
II. Business Education; Choice of Business.
III. Habits of Business.
IV. Getting Money.
V. Getting Money by Farming.
VI. & VII. do. by Merchandise.
VIII. How to get Customers.
IX. The True Man of Business.
X. How to get Rich by Speculation.
XI. Getting Money by Interest and Banking.
XII. Getting Money by Inventions, Patent Medicines.
XIII. How to become Millionaires; Opinions of Millionaires.
XIV. Losing Money; Chances of Success; Causes of Failure.
XV. Saving, Giving, Spending, Lending, and Bequeathing Money.

There is also a valuable Appendix, containing important statistics and some original notes of the experience of great money-makers, Rothschild, Barnum, Mr. Grigg, of Philadelphia, etc.

The chapter on "Millionaires, and how to be such," is one we would like to publish hereafter, (the author consenting,) inasmuch as ourselves and the majority of our readers would be satisfied with nothing short of this success. (Cannot some one show us how to achieve it out of the Review? Mr. Freedley's magic power falls short of this.) The experiences of Rothschild, Ricardo, Girard, Astor, Longworth, Freedley, McDonough, etc., are included here.

We are sure that the work before us will have a large sale. Every merchant, clerk, mechanic, lawyer, adventurer, will have it at any price, and particularly at the low one the author affixes. This is already proved in the rapid sale of two or three editions. It deserves success. Its maxims and morals are good, and one may discover that to serve God and make money are not necessarily incompatible, though, alas, how many have tried to evince the contrary in their actions!

The author intends publishing a new and enlarged edition soon, and requests information from every part of the Union. He desires the experiences of business men every where, their rules, habits, morals, etc. Those having such facts would do well to furnish them at once.

5.—BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

Naval Dry Docks of the United States. By Charles B. Stuart, Engineer-in-Chief of the U. S. Navy. Illustrated with 23 fine engravings on steel. New-York: Charles B. Norton, Irving House.

The subjects treated are, New-York Navy Yard, and its history, location of dry dock, soil, coffer dam, earth work, bottom springs, piles, foundation, apron and masonry of dock, pump-well and culverts, engine-house, turning gates, floating culvert, and discharging gates, etc., etc. The purpose is to show the mode of constructing and working the naval dry docks of the United States, at the Navy Yards of New-York, Boston, Philadelphia, Norfolk, Pensacola, San Francisco, &c., floating dry docks, etc. The work is superbly printed, large quarto, on heavy white paper, interleaved, large type, and is altogether an honor to author and publisher. Every shipwright in England or America should have a copy, and we understand the demand is already large.

Putnam's Home Cyclopedia; in six vols., each complete in itself. New-York: George P. Putnam.

Vol. 1, The World's Progress, or Hand Book of Chronology and History: a Dictionary of Dates, with tabular views of General History, and Historical Chart. A most useful volume for the library of every student and scholar, founded upon the tables of Talboys, the elaborate work of Haydn, and the labors of the editor, begun at a very early period of life. The series of which it is a part is intended to comprise a comprehensive view of the whole circle of human knowledge. The American articles are very complete, and are brought down to the date of publication. Ancient history, modern history, chronology, heathen deities, and general biography, are treated with equal minuteness.

Essay on the Progress of Nations, in civilization, productive industry, wealth, and population; illustrated by statistics of mining, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, coin, banking, internal improvements, emigration, and population. By Ezra C. Seaman.

This is a new edition published by Charles Scribner, of a work which first appeared in 1847 or 1848, and in a few of its articles the facts and figures are brought down to date. The author should, as an easy task, have completed all the others in an appendix. The work is a very much mixed-up affair—some politics, a little religion, any quantity of prejudice. Its statistics, so far as they go, are valuable. Had the writer been content with these, without showing himself a bitter partisan, he would have done well. In one place he speaks of the country as being "Tyler-ised and Burr-ised"—in another place refers to the course of the South upon the Texas question—"Avarice and ambition, two of the strongest passions which can operate upon the human mind, concurred to influence them in their course." But such passages abound. The work is intended as an attack upon Free Trade.

Archibald Cameron; or Heart Trials. Charles Scribner, New-York.

A neat volume, telling a tale of real life more than fancy.

The Lives of Winfield Scott and General Jackson. By J. T. Headley. Scribner, New-York.

Even when the election shall be over, as it will be, perhaps, when this is read, Mr. Headley's sketch of General Scott, as the greatest general of the age, will live and be read. In regard to Jackson, the American people will never tire of hearing, and Mr. Headley may write just as many books upon him as he pleases. Mr. Headley declares in his preface that political matters had nothing to do with the appearance of the volume, and we are therefore bound to believe him. The volume will be as popular as any of his other eloquent productions.

Pioneer Women of the West. By Mrs. Ellet, author of the Women of the American Revolution. New-York: Scribner.

The biographies are prepared from original material in most cases, and are deeply interesting. They embrace the Boones, Innis, Seviers, Shelbys, and twenty others.

Life and Writings of Sidney, with sketches of some of his contemporaries, and extracts from his correspondence and political writings. By G. Van Santvord. New-York: Scribner.

An admirable volume of 300 pages. Every one ambitious of high and honorable place in public life, should read the life and works of that true patriot and noble martyr to liberty, Algernon Sidney—a glorious name the world will not willingly let die.

Outlines of Moral Science. By Archibald Alexander. Scribner.

An interesting little volume which condenses a great deal in a small space, and which should be read with Paley, Butler, Wayland, Chalmers, etc., and form a part of the same library.

Japan; Historical and Geographical, etc., to date. By C. McFarlane, author of British India, with illustrations. New-York: Putnam.

As we are preparing an elaborate article upon the subject, reviewing this volume among others, we defer any further notice now.

Witchcraft.—A Tragedy in Five Acts. By Cornelius Matthews. London: David Boyne. 1852.

This production is founded upon the witchcraft trials in New-England, which have had a world-wide celebrity. We have not space to enter upon its plot, which is admirably devised, or upon its material which is in the best style of the author, and altogether, we think, his *chef d'œuvre.* There are many passages of exquisite finish and thrilling interest, and the reader's warmed-up fancies are not suffered to cool for an instant in the rapid progress of the piece.

"The scene of the tragedy is Salem, and the action of the piece develops with great dramatic force and truth to nature, a tragic story of dark superstition, ending in violence and death—a story, to the historical truthfulness of which the annals of Salem witchcraft bear testimony in blood. The purpose of the play is naturally exhibited in the gradual development of superstition in the minds of the credulous and ignorant. The imagination of the author has succeeded with wonderful, weird-like power, in surrounding his tragedy with a mysterious atmosphere, in which the reader seems to hear voices in the air, and to see the demon superstition stealing upon him as an apparition, approaching nearer, nearer, step by step, until it reveals itself in the tragic reality of death. Mr. Matthews has shown great power in the delineation of the emotions of the heart, and we can conceive nothing more pathetic than the exhibition in this tragedy of filial love, and of the struggle between this love and a soul awe-struck with superstition."

Mr. Matthews, though a young man, has long been known to the literary public, and has acquired laurels in every field he has entered. As a writer in the *New-York Review*, in its palmy days, in the *American Monthly*, the *Knickerbocker*, his reputation ranked high. In 1838 he published the "*Motley Book*," or Sketches of American Life, which was received with great favor. In 1839 appeared his "*Behemoth*, or the Mound Builders." His other efforts, as we can recall them, were the "*Politician*," a Comedy; "*Big Abel and the Little Manhattan*;" "*Puffer Hopkins*;" "*Money-penny, or the Heart of the World*;" "*Chanticleer*," etc. He is also the author of several plays besides Witchcraft, which have been performed frequently and with great success upon the stage in all the northern cities. His contributions have been also very numerous for the last fifteen years to many of the magazines and other journals of the North. It was high credit to Mr. Matthews that Philarete Chasles, the celebrated French critic, should say of one of his productions: "Whatever may be the restrictions or the objections a fastidious and illiberal critic might be disposed to make or to oppose, it informs us a thousand times better about the true manners of the United States and their future, than many books of English or even French travelers. I have not failed to quote it in my public lectures at the college of France, as well as in various periodical works."

EDITORIAL NOTES.

CIRCULAR OF PATENT OFFICE.

The Commissioner of the Patent Office has issued his annual circular, calling for information, which we hope will be liberally furnished him from all parts of the upon the state of the following crops Wheat, corn, oats, barley, grasses, neat cattle, horses and mules, sheep wool, hogs, cotton, sugar cane, rice, hemp, root crops, potatoes, fruits, etc. He desires replies before the January.

The wide circulation given to the Office Reports, renders it desirable new facts and discoveries of practical relating to American husbandry, be ed in them, and thus preserved in a per nent form for the use of the public.

The third and closing volume of the dustrial Resources of the South and has been issued from the press, the pectus of which will be found on our page. Price for the 3 vols., bound, $10, postage free.

Our portrait and biography for the number is omitted from a with the engraver. Next month we give Maunsel White, of New-Orleans, E. Howard, of Tennessee.

We cannot but feel grateful for the following resolution, offered by Mr. Segar, adopted unanimously by the Virginia Internal Improvement Convention, held last September near the White Sulphur Springs:

Resolved, That De Bow's Review, as the organ of Internal Improvement, and other Industrial interests of the Southern and Western States, recommends itself to the consideration and support of this Convention, and the people of Virginia generally.

We are indebted to Dr. Cartwright, of New-Orleans, the able physiologist, for a copy of his very interesting letter, addressed in reply to queries from Dr. C. R. Hall, of England, in regard to the *Philosophy of the Negro Constitution*. In our next number we shall make a few extracts from this paper, and from several others by the same gentleman.

A. Hutchinson, of Miss., proposes to publish in a short time a work entitled,

Manual of Juridical, Ministerial and Civil Forms; Revised, Americanized, and divested of useless verbiage: Comprising the Process, Proceedings and Entries, before Justices of the Peace, and in the Inferior, Superior and Appellate Courts of Mississippi, with Illustrations of the Author's System of Opening and Conducting the Clerk's Offices. Also, Conveyances, Mortgages, Trusts, and the various instruments in popular use.

The reputation acquired by Mr. Hutchinson in his compilation of the Code of Mississippi, bespeaks his eminent success in the present undertaking, and we recommend the work to the profession. Henry Isaacson, Clerk of this Review in New-Orleans, will receive the names of persons desirous of subscribing. Price, $5.

Finis, at Nashville, is informed that our w Rail-road map will not be ready for me time. We refer him to the one we blished in the August No., 1851, and have nt to our agents at Nashville, York & Co., very handsome, late one, which he will ll for and get.

Those who order the Industrial Resources re informed that they can have the volumes f the Review hereafter bound uniformly vith it, by sending them to our office, at 50 ents per volume.

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TO THE WORLD OF LITERATURE & ART.

A PAPER FOR THE SOUTH AND SOUTH-WEST.

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ART. I.—THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

Twenty years ago "the far west" was a fixed idea resting upon a fixed extent of territory. Missouri was then our remotest idea of it—our *ultima thule.* The progress of civilization, however, has been so rapid, that now neither California nor Oregon is looked upon as realizing the idea of "the far west." Our ideas are leaving even the eastern shores of the Pacific to find a locality beyond them for this "far west." The Sandwich Islands, as we saw in our last number, begin to lay claim to it on the principles of "manifest destiny." Australia will soon be in the "line of safe precedents." Already President Fillmore finds a "far west" on the isles of the Japanese Empire and on the shores of China, and is now fitting out a powerful expedition to go in search of it. As the objects of this expedition are attracting the attention of the whole world to the Empire, we propose to lay before our readers such information regarding it as has been permitted to Europeans.

The Empire of Japan, called by the native Japanese *Niphon,*[*] and by the Chinese *Yang-hou,*[†] is entirely insular, consisting of a cluster of 3,850 islands, lying off the coast of China, from which they are separated by the Strait of Corea, the Sea of Japan, and the Channel of Tartary. On the north of them lies the Sea of Okhotsk, and on the east and south the broad Pacific. The entire cluster, constituting the empire, consists of five large islands, and a great number of small ones, and all lying between the 30th and 50th parallels of north latitude, and between the 128th and the 151st degrees of east longitude. From this it will be seen that they lie immediately west of the United States, stretching from south to north, from the latitude of New-Orleans to that of Newfoundland. They are about 150 miles east of China.

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[*] "Basin of the Sun."

[†] "Workshop of the Sun." The Chinese also call it Noo-Kooe, or "Kingdom of Slaves;" and also Je-pen or Je-poon, or "Country of the Rising Sun."—Kämpfer's *History of Japan.*

Our knowledge of this renowned empire of the Japanese is very incomplete, but still sufficient to enable us to form a tolerable idea of its very singular inhabitants. The Dutch are the only Europeans who are allowed to visit them, and then only twice a year, and only at one port, that of Nangasaki. The Chinese are the only Asiatics who are allowed to trade with them. The system excluding Europeans has existed ever since the year 1630. The Portuguese had till then the chief trade to Japan, and had, as they stated, converted a great part of the nation to Christianity; but being charged with a conspiracy to usurp the government, upon the plea of the Pope's supremacy, all the Portuguese and their numerous proselytes were either massacred or banished the empire. The Dutch alone were suffered to trade with them, as some say, because they declared that they were not Christians; others, that they assisted in the expulsion of the Portuguese. Others again declare that the Portuguese were expelled, and the exclusive system established, simply because the Jesuit missionaries, as in China, attempted to christianize the country. It is certain, however, that the Japanese regard the Dutch as Christians, for they use as much caution in their commerce with them as if they were really Christians.

At the season of the year when the Dutch fleet is expected, the Governor of Nangasaki places sentinels on the hills to give notice of the approach of any ships. When the fleet arrives, a boat is sent off to each vessel with an officer, and as soon as the ships come to anchor, an express is immediately dispatched to announce the arrival to the Emperor of Japan, and the Dutch are not allowed to dispose of anything until the dispatch returns. In the mean time, the particulars of every ship's cargo are taken, with the name, age, stature and office of every man on board, which are translated and printed in the Japanese language. On the return of the express, the crews are allowed to come on shore, and on landing are all mustered before a Japanese commissary. Each man, as his name is called, is required to give an account of his age, quality and office, in order to see if it agrees with the particulars given in at first by the Dutch officers. After this examination, they are sent on board again, and the sails of the ships, with all the guns, arms, ammunition and helms, are brought on shore, and the hatches sealed down by a Japanese officer; nor are they allowed to be opened, whatever the ships' crews may need, without permission from the governor, who always sends a person to see what is taken out, and to seal the hatches down again. Nor are the Dutch sailors allowed to light candles on board, or to make any noise, any more than on shore. The ships are allowed no communication with one another: nor is any officer or sailor suffered to go on shore except the persons who are appointed to carry the present of the Dutch Company to the emperor at Jeddo.

His majesty having accepted the present, and prepared one in return for the Company, the Dutch officer is conveyed, under a strong guard, back to Nangasaki. This journey, and the transaction of their commercial affairs, usually occupy about three and a half months. The Dutch who attend the emperor on this occasion approach him on their knees, with their hands joined together and carried to their foreheads, that being the manner in which the Japanese governors and ministers always approach him.*

While the Dutch ships lie in the road, none of the Japanese are allowed to go on board to trade with the sailors; and those that carry provisions on board are not suffered to take any money for them till the permission to trade comes from court. They then present their accounts and are paid. After this the Japanese permit six persons from each vessel to come on shore and buy and sell for themselves, and stay four days, either in Disnia, a small island, or in the city of Nangasaki. When these six men return on board, six others are allowed to go on shore to traffic, and so on as long as the trading season continues; so that at no time are there more than six Dutchmen on shore. The goods are generally paid for in bullion, or in silver coins received by weight. After six weeks of free trade in this manner, there is no further communication allowed with the Dutch, who then prepare to return.†

According to the most respectable authorities, it cannot be doubted that the Dutch, at the time of the expulsion of the Jesuits and Portuguese, acquired the exclusive privilege of trading by denying their religion, and by going through the ceremony of trampling over the image of the cross. This ceremony, which was for a long time required, is now discontinued, the Japanese government considering it useless. The Jesuits first introduced Christianity into the islands in the year 1545, and made rapid progress in their work. Many of the princes and persons of high rank became converts, and a public embassy was sent from Japan with letters and valuable presents to the Roman pontiff. The Portuguese soon became very numerous in Japan; and their great success in trade and in converting the natives, soon rendered them odious, by the avarice and domineering disposition which they exhibited. The heathen priests succeeded in procuring a prohibition from the emperor against the new religion. A violent persecution commenced against the Christians, of whom 20,000 are said to have been put to death in 1590. The number of proselytes, nevertheless, continued to increase, and in 1591 and 1592, 12,000 of the natives were converted and baptized. One of the emperors with his whole court and army embraced the Christian faith, and had the Portuguese acted with only ordinary prudence and moderation, they might have triumphed; but in 1596, having superciliously treated a prince of the empire, their doom was sealed. A new persecution began, which was carried on against the Christians without interruption for forty years, and ended in 1638 with the entire extermination of the Christians, and the banishment of the Portuguese from the country. The Japanese, being persuaded that the conduct of the Portuguese was the legitimate consequence of their religion, forbade them ever to return. The Portuguese, indeed, richly deserved their fate; for it afterwards appeared that they had entered into a conspiracy against the emperor and government. This conspiracy was discovered and disclosed to the emperor by the Dutch, who were at that time at war with the Portuguese. This is said to have been the real cause of the exclusive privileges now enjoyed by the Dutch.*

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* *Japan*, by T. Watts, M.D., late of the B. E. I. Company. Page 5. New-York: Cornish, Lamport & Co. 1852.

† Ibid. Page 6.

History of Japan.—The Empire of Japan was founded about 665 years before Christ by Siunsin. From him to Sinzakin there were 61 emperors, the last of whom reigned in 1142, A. D. At this time a change took place, and a double chronology commences, including the reigns of the Dearios and Cubos. The Dearios were military officers, and at one period completely usurped the power of the emperors; but finally a general, by the name of Jeretimo, being crowned emperor, succeeded in depriving the Dearios of all military power.

Marco Polo was the first to make known to Europeans the existence of a country called by him Zipangu, since proved to be identical with Japan. In 1542, Mendez Pinto, a Portuguese, sailing in a Chinese junk from Macao to the Sikes islands, was wrecked on the Japanese coast, and thus became the first European discoverer of Japan. The Spaniards were soon afterwards wrecked on the islands also. The first appearance of the Dutch in Japan was also owing to chance. In 1600 the Dutch fitted out a squadron of five vessels for the East Indies. Four of the squadron were lost in the Straits of Magellan, but the remaining ship, steered by an Englishman, named William Adams, succeeded in reaching the harbor of Bungo, in latitude 35° 30′. Adams was fortunate enough to ingratiate himself with the Emperor of Japan, who loaded him with presents, but would not consent to his returning home. The accounts he sent to Batavia, with the prospects he held out of a commercial commerce between the two countries, induced the Dutch East India Company to dispatch a ship thither in 1609; and thus, through the intervention of an Englishman, are the Dutch indebted for their establishment at Japan. Nearly at the same time, also, the English, by means of Adams, had permission to build a factory on the island of Firando; but though they were well received, and allowed to traffic on advantageous terms, the trade was abandoned for reasons unexplained.

Physical Geography.—Our entire knowledge of Japan is derived through the Dutch and Russians. The latter have acquired considerable knowledge of the empire through their scientific explorers, Kämpfer, Thunberg, Krusenstern, Siebold, Meylan, and

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* *Wonders of Nature and Art.* By the Rev. Tho. Smith. In 14 vols. Phila. 1806.

Fischer. The shores of Japan are very difficult of access to vessels, they being either so rocky, or so extremely flat, and so often enveloped in heavy and dangerous fogs, that exploring vessels cannot approach near enough to make an accurate survey of the coasts. The following table exhibits the extent of the empire:

Islands.	No. Provinces.	Sq. miles.	Chief towns.
Japan proper:			
Niphon	53	109,000	Jeddo, Miako, Osaka, Simonoseki.
Kiu-siu	4	28,300	Kagosima, Sanga, Nangasaki.
Siktokf	9	17,200	Tosa.
Iki	2	800	
Isousima	2		
Total of Japan proper,	70	155,300	
Japanese Dependencies, called the government of Matsmai:			
Jesso		62,500	Matsmai and Khakodade.
Tarakai, south part of the Kurule Islands:		47,000	
Kunachir, Iturup, Urup.		1,800	Ourbitch.
Total of Japanese Empire		266,600	

From the above table it will be seen that the area of the Japanese Empire is larger than that of both France and England put together —larger than all Germany, including Austria and Prussia, and nearly six times as large as the State of New-York.

The three principal islands, which alone have been explored by Europeans, have a very uneven surface, few plains being of any great extent, and the hills extensive and of a rocky character. Niphon, the largest and best known, contains a regular mountain chain, running N. N. E., the highest summit of which, according to Siebold, is 12,000 feet high; another summit is 8,000. These summits are covered with perpetual snow. The average height, however, is so moderate, that the lands on the mountains may be cultivated nearly to the average summits. The two summits above mentioned, the first called *Fusi*, and the second *Siro-jama*, are active volcanoes. Many other summits, too, in the island, emit either flames or smoke. Earthquakes are frequent in Niphon. In 1705 one occurred which destroyed nearly half of the city of Jeddo, and killing more than 100,000 inhabitants. Thermal and mineral springs are also numerous; so that in general the islands of Japan may be considered the seat of great volcanic movements.

The metallic riches of Japan are stated to be very great, copper being in sufficiently large quantities for extensive exportation. Iron, sulphur, lead, tin, and some gold and silver are found, the two last being under the exclusive superintendence of the government.

The rivers of Japan, though numerous, are not long. Most of them are rather torrents than rivers. The largest river is Yedogawa, in Niphon. It rises in a large lake, Oitz, and after a course of about

60 miles, empties into the harbor of Osaka. The lake Fakonee, S. W. of Jeddo, is held in superstitious reverence by the natives.[*]

Japan may be said to be remarkable for its volcanoes. Besides those mentioned, there is a small rocky island near Firando that has been burning and trembling for many centuries; and at a small distance from the coast is another which has thrown out lava and other combustible matter, at different intervals, for many ages. Earthquakes are of such common occurrence there that the inhabitants do not regard them. They imagine them to be caused by a huge whale creeping under the islands.[†]

On the coast of Japan there are two remarkable and dangerous whirlpools. One, near Simabara, is at high water even with the surface of the sea; but the tide no sooner begins to ebb than, after some violent turnings, it suddenly sinks to the depth of fifteen fathoms, swallowing up with great force the ships, boats, and whatsoever comes within its reach, dashing them to pieces against the rocks at the bottom, where they sometimes remain under water, and at others are thrown out again at several miles distance. The other whirlpool, which lies near the coast of the province of Kijnokuni, rushes with a loud boisterous noise about a small rocky island, which, by the violence of the motion, is kept in perpetual trembling. But though this has a very formidable appearance, it is esteemed less dangerous than the other; for its noise being heard at a considerable distance, it may be easily avoided.

We are inclined to discredit these stories about the two whirlpools, though they come from the pen of the *Reverend* Mr. Thomas Smith. We find them in no other author. The Russian explorers must have seen them, if seen by any one, or at least have heard of them; and yet they do not mention them.

The entire number of islands, large and small, composing the Empire of Japan, is said to be 3,850. Niphon, the largest, is about 1,600 miles long and 60 wide.

AGRICULTURE.—All owners of land in Japan are required by law, under penalty of confiscation, to keep their property in good productive condition. The reason of this law is, that the lands may be able to pay a large land-tax to government. The result of this law has been, that the soil, though not naturally fertile, has been so much improved as to be rendered extremely productive. Few plants, except upon the hills, are found in a natural state, and the face of the country, even on the mountain sides, (which are formed into terraces, as in some parts of Italy and Persia,) is so diligently cultivated that, as Thunberg observes, "it would be difficult to find in the country a single nook of untilled land, even to the dry summits of the mountains;" and this is confirmed in all material respects by Siebold, one of the latest travelers in Japan. In the southern districts rice is raised in very large quantities, as it forms a principal article of food with the inhabitants; but wheat is little grown and held in high estimation; barley, also buckwheat, a bean called *daïdson*, and another, the *soja dolichos*, (from which the well-known "soy" sauce is made,) potatoes, melons, pumpkins and cucumbers, are raised in great abundance; and the fruit-trees of the south of Europe, the orange, lemon, vine, peach and mulberry, the last of which is carefully raised for silkworms, are both plentiful and highly productive. Ginger and pepper are the chief spice plants. Cotton is cultivated in considerable quantities, and tobacco, introduced by the Jesuits, is very generally raised in the south islands. The grand object of cultivation, however, next to rice, is the tea-plant, introduced from China in the 9th century. Not only are there large tea plantations, with drying houses, &c., but every hedge on every farm consists of the tea-plant, and furnishes the drink of the farmer's family and laborers. The fine sorts demand extreme care in their cultivation. The plant thrives best on well watered hill-sides, and they are said to be manured with dried anchovies and a liquor pressed out of mustard-seed.

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[*] *Thunberg*, vol. iv. pp. 68–90. *Siebold*, vol. i. p. 325.

[†] Rev. Thos. Smith, *Wonders of Nature*.

Among the trees of Japan, the *Broussonetia papyrifera* is cultivated for its bark, which is converted into cloth and paper; and the varnish tree, *Rhus vernix*, for its gum, used in varnishing wooden furniture; the camphor laurel, also the iron-tree, the oak, fir and cypress, are common. Timber, however, is generally scarce in Japan Proper, and it is supplied from the northern dependencies of Jesso and Soghalien. The greater part of the provinces of Japan are without wood, the very dense population having long since consumed it all.

Japan is rich in silk. Capt. Golownin, of the Russian navy, in his *Memoirs of a Captivity in Japan*, says: "Matsmai is reckoned to be one of the very poorest towns; yet we constantly saw people of all ranks, especially women, in silk dresses. On festivals even the common soldiers wore costly silk dresses. If we consider the great population of the Japanese empire, the quantity of silk must be very great, even if only rich people dressed themselves in it."

Sugar-cane is rare in Japan, and of a very poor quality.

CATTLE AND OTHER ANIMALS.—Pasturage in a country inhabited by a people eating scarcely any animal food, except fish, and so well supplied with cotton and silk that they feel no want of wool for the manufacture of cloths, must necessarily be very unimportant. Buffaloes and oxen are not numerous, and are used only for draught labor. There are but few sheep, first introduced by the Dutch. The horses are of inferior size, and only used by the nobility. There are neither mules nor asses, and hogs are found only in the neighborhood of Nangasaki. Dogs are very common, and are considered sacred animals, in consequence of the favor which they enjoyed from one of the *Mikados*, or supreme emperors; and cats are highly esteemed by the Japanese ladies; so that dogs and cats in Japan are a rivileged class of animals, and fare sumptuously.

Among the wild animals may be enumerated bears, wild boars, foxes, wild dogs, deer, monkeys, hares, rats, mice, weasels; also panthers, leopards and sables. The superstitious Japanese ascribe to foxes the power of the devil. Apes and monkeys are worshiped, and have their pagodas. Stags are sacred animals also; and they are looked upon with so great veneration and respect that no one is permitted to make an attempt upon their lives. Stags are to be seen as common in the streets of the towns of Japan as dogs in this country. No one presumes to molest them, and in case any person should accidentally hurt one of them, it would cost him a large sum, if not his life, to make atonement for the misdemeanor. Should the stag happen to die from the wound he had received, the whole street where the act was committed would be demolished, and the effects of all the inhabitants seized upon and forfeited, the money going into the public treasury.* This severity of the Japanese laws is probably owing less to any real veneration for the stag, on the part of the government, than to a desire for some pretext for extorting large sums of money from the people.

Birds are numerous, and of many varieties. They have the falcon, pelican, crane, heron, pheasant, duck, wild-goose, teal, stork, pigeon, raven, lark, and other small birds. The crow and parrot are unknown. The reptiles and insects are similar to those of America. The seas abound in fish. Fish are in Japan what meat is in Europe.

MANUFACTURES.—The industry of the Japanese will bear to be compared with that of the Hindoos or Chinese. The artificers in copper, iron and steel have a high character, and the swords of Japan rank second only to those made in Khorassan. Telescopes, thermometers, watches and clocks of good quality, are constructed at Nangasaki; and if the descriptions of Meylan, in his work on Japan, may be credited, the Japanese possess a very high degree of mechanical ingenuity. Glass is made, but the natives are unacquainted with the art of blowing it. Printing was introduced in the 13th century, and is conducted as in China, by means of wooden blocks. Engravings also are made, but in a very clumsy manner. Silk and cotton fabrics, of good quality, are manufactured in quantities almost sufficient for the consumption of the population. Porcelain, more highly esteemed even than that of China, is formed from two peculiar kinds of earth called *kaslin petunsee.* The art of lacquering furniture with gold, silver, and various pigments, the secret of which was, till lately, almost exclusively confined to the Japanese, and hence called japanning, is practised with great success, and the specimens that have been brought from Japan exceed in excellence every other sort of European japanned wares, though only second-rate in Japan.

The Japanese manufacture paper and cordage from the bark of the mulberry and other trees. The art of building is little understood by them. Their houses are almost universally constructed of timber, covered on the outside with plaster; and the inside consists usually of two stories, each of which, when divided, is parted off into close rooms by flimsy paper partitions, adorned, or rather disfigured, with garnish and bold paintings. Such is the account of Siebold. Others describe the houses of the Japanese as plain and neat. Those of the better class as having halls with splendid ceilings, and staircases equally splendid.

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* *Japan and the Japanese:* T. Watts, p. 44.

In ship-building the Japanese are little skilled; and all progress in the art is checked by a law which prescribes the exact form in which ships shall always be built—that of the Chinese junks. Their ships are made of cedar, fir, or camphor-wood. Merchant vessels average about 70 feet in length by 20 or 24 in breadth, and carry about 100 or 150 tons. Great numbers of ships are employed in carrying on the trade with the different ports of the empire. Japanese ships are mere boats of the rudest description, and quite unfit for sea navigation. The Japanese have pilots to conduct ships in and out of port. They are also supposed to be able to foretell the weather, and are accordingly consulted by captains before sailing. In dangerous parts of the coasts beacon-fires are kept burning.*

Trade and Commerce.—The internal trade of Japan is very extensive, and the laws have for their chief object the encouragement of home industry. Every means is used to facilitate trade between the great cities of the empire. The best of roads are maintained for the land-carriage, and coasting vessels line the shores. The shops and markets of all the great cities and towns are always well supplied with all the products of the empire. Great fairs are also held, at stated periods, which are crowded by merchants and others from all parts of the empire.

Foreign commerce, as is well known, is vigorously opposed by the government. An edict, published in 1637, and still in full force, makes it a capital offence for the natives to travel in other countries; and their seamen, even when accidentally cast on foreign shores, are on their return subjected to rigorous examination, and sometimes tedious imprisonment, to purify them from the supposed pollution contracted abroad.

Capt. Golownin, of the Russian navy, who was long in captivity in Japan, says, that "the people of Japan, in general, wish to trade with foreigners, particularly with Europeans." Before the expulsion of the Portuguese the foreign trade of Japan was very extensive. Their ships not only visited all the coasts of China and all of the East India Islands, but they even went as far west as Hindostan.

The Dutch trade in Japan is very humiliating, and disgraceful to the whole Dutch nation. Capt. Golownin observes that the trade "is on such hard terms, that the Dutch in Japan more resemble prisoners than freemen who are engaged in a commercial intercourse with a friendly power."

"In every port of Japan," says Golownin, "there is a bureau or custom-house, which has the superintendence of the loading and unloading of goods, takes care that nothing is privately imported or exported, levies the duties,"† &c. The duty is paid either to the emperor or to a prince of the empire. Each port has a harbor-master, whose duties are nearly the same as those of the same officer in this country. They are the superintendents of the pilots.

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* *Siebold*, vol. i. pp. 218–20. *Golownin:* Captivity in Japan.

† The Rev. Thos. Smith, in his great work in 14 vols., published in Philadelphia in 1806, contradicts this statement. He says: "Custom-houses are not known, either in the interior of the country or on its coasts, and no customs are demanded, either on imports

For the advantage of the merchants and to facilitate trade, the government publishes a kind of commercial gazette, which contains an account of the prices of goods in the different parts of the empire. Bulletins are also circulated in all the provinces, from time to time, informing all of the actual condition and prospects of the coming crops of rice, cotton, corn, and other productions.

In order also to extend trade over the whole empire, says Golownin, and give the merchants more resources and facilities, the Japanese have introduced bills of exchange and promissory notes, like those of Europe and America, under the protection of the laws. In one of the southern principalities of Japan there are bank-notes which circulate as money.

The Dutch had their earliest factory on the island of Ferato, but they were removed in 1641 to Nangasaki, by the emperor's orders, at which place alone, in common with the Chinese and Coreans, they are allowed to bring their goods for sale; but the number of vessels allowed to come each year, and the quantity of each description of goods to be sold, are strictly defined; and the residents in the factory are restricted to eleven only. The Dutch are obliged to send valuable presents, which are in fact a tribute to the *sjogun;* and once in four years the superintendent of the Dutch factory is obliged to make a journey to Jeddo, carrying gifts of more than usual value, which, together with the expenses of the journey, cost him about $15,000.

The Dutch import into Japan raw silk, woolen, cotton and linen cloths of various kinds, sugar, dye-woods, seal-skins, pepper and other spices, quicksilver, tin, iron, cinnabar, glass-wares, ivory, medicines, saltpetre, alum, watches, looking-glasses, mathematical instruments, &c., &c. The Chinese supply the Japanese with silk, tea, sugar, dried fish, whale oil, porcelain, wrought and unwrought ivory, nankeen, moist sugar, ginseng-root, medical herbs, alum, and divers trifles, such as fans, tobacco pipes, &c., &c.

The exports of the Japanese are copper, varnish, lacquered goods, salted and dried fish, sea-cabbage, camphor, silks, porcelain, soja-dolichos, and all kinds of Japanese manufactures. Sea-cabbage, which is accounted almost worthless by other nations, not only gives food to millions of people in Japan, but is also an article of commerce. It is cooked in various ways, and is the chief article of food with the poor. It is also eaten by the rich, and is used also in the emperor's kitchen.

Golownin states that he saw three kinds of coins in Japan, gold, silver and copper. The latter are round, with a hole in the middle

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or exports, from strangers or natives—an exemption which few other countries possess. But no prohibited goods can be smuggled into the country on account of the vigilance that is used to prevent it."

We cannot credit this statement; for Captain Golownin was an eye-witness of things in Japan; while Mr. Smith only wrote from report. We do not look upon Mr. Smith's great work as very reliable. It was written half a century ago, when much less was known of Japan than now.

by which they are carried on a string. "The gold and silver coins," says Golownin, "are longish, four-cornered, and thicker than an imperial. The name, value, date of the year, and name of the maker, are stamped on each." The gold coins are the

Itzib, worth	£0	8s.	9d.	sterling.
Kobang, "	1	7	4	"
Obon, "	5	2	0	"

Accounts in Japan are kept in *thails*, *mas* and *condorins*, the values of which are:

10 condorins	equal to	1 mas,
10 mas,	"	1 thail; and
1 thail,	"	75 cents of our money.

Large payments are mostly made in silver ingots of a fixed weight and value.

Mineral Wealth of Japan.—The Japanese islands are rich in minerals. Copper is very abundant. "The inhabitants," says Golownin, "cover with it the roofs and joints of some of their houses, and the fore part of their ships. About nine-tenths of all that the Dutch export from Japan is copper. Iron is not so abundant, but in sufficient quantity to supply the home demand. In several parts of the empire there are considerable gold and silver mines; but the government does not permit them all to be worked, in order that the value of the metals may not be depreciated. The Japanese use gold and silver for various purposes besides for coins. Their temples and palaces are magnificently ornamented with them. Those of distinction wear swords, having gold or silver hilts and scabbards. The rich use gold and silver pipes, and a great number of articles in common use are ornamented with gold and silver. It is said that in the principal cities there are numerous public houses with gilded roofs.

The precious metals, gold and silver, says Malte Brun, abound in the Empire of Japan. This was well known at one time to the Portuguese, and afterwards to the Dutch, who exported considerable cargoes. Gold is found almost everywhere in Japan; but in order to keep up its value by scarcity, there is a prohibition against digging beyond a determinate depth; and no mine can be opened or worked without the express permission of the emperor, who claims two-thirds of the produce, leaving the other third to the proprietor of the land. Gold is found in small quantities in the sands, but the greater part of it is extracted from copper pyrites. The purest and richest mines are at Sido in Niphon, and at Surewga. Silver was formerly more abundant in Japan than now. The Japanese regard it as rarer than gold. It is said that there are rich silver mines in the province of Bungo, and in the most northerly parts of the empire near Kattami. Copper mixed largely with gold forms the chief wealth of several provinces, and the most valuable of their exports.

Amber, sulphur, pumice-stone, agates, pearls, diamonds and other precious stones, are found in Japan. It is rich in pearls. Lead and tin abound. The Japanese (says Golownin) cast their muskets and cannon-balls of tin, in preparation for war in time of peace. They have had no war for 200 years.

Sulphur is in vast quantities. One of the islands (says Golownin) is entirely covered with it. This island is regarded as one of the seven wonders of Japan. Marble is abundant, but stone for building is not used on account of the frequency of earthquakes. This is also the reason why they build their houses low and of such light materials.

Government and Laws.—The Japanese government is that of an hereditary and absolute monarchy. The supreme power was originally vested in an ecclesiastical emperor called *Daïrisma*,* or *Mikado*. In 1583, Joritomo, the emperor's *Sjogun*, or military commander, usurped the civil government, and since that time the *Mikado*, who is the real emperor, has been a mere puppet, in a state of dependence on his sjogun, or prime minister and military chief of the empire. All enactments, however, must be sanctioned by the emperor before they can have legal force. He alone confers honorary distinctions, and has the entire control of religion and education. He is regarded a sacred person, and is styled the Son of Heaven. Any further connection with sublunary affairs than that mentioned above, it is thought, would degrade and profane his holy character. His court is at Miako, where he lives secluded in a large palace, surrounded by numerous officers, who treat him with almost divine honors. His person is considered too sacred to be exposed to the air and the rays of the sun, and still less to the view of his subjects. He is consequently confined within his palace. His hair, nails and beard are not cleaned or cut by day-light, these operations being always performed when he is asleep. He never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel a second time, they being invariably broken to prevent them from falling into unhallowed hands. His finances are derived from the taxes collected from Miako and the surrounding territory; from certain revenues from the treasury of the sjogun, and from the fees paid on the admission to honorable dignities and offices. His income is so small, and his dependents so numerous, that he lives in splendid poverty—the mere tool of the sjogun.

The sjogun, who is, in fact, the emperor, holds his court at Jeddo, and exercises entire authority over the lives and property of the natives, controlled only by the enactments and usages of former emperors, which suffer little change. He also controls directly the government of the five great cities, Jeddo, Miako, Osaki, Sakai and Nangasaki.

Each of the provinces is governed by a prince called *Daimio* or high-named; and under each prince are governors of districts, called *Siomio*, or well-named. The *daimios* are appointed by the sjogun, to whom they are accountable, giving hostages for the proper exercise of their authority. They have the revenues of their respective provinces, with which they defray all the expenses of the province.

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* *Daïrisma* means "Lord of the Dairi;" the term *daïri* being the name of the court of the *Mikado*, or emperor.

They reside usually in large towns, in castles fortified with strong gates and lofty towers. Once a year, in token of subjection, they repair to the Sjogun's court, at Jeddo, with splendid retinues, and bearing valuable presents, constituting a main portion of his yearly revenues.

The executive department of the emperor is confided to seven ministers, as follows :

Minister of internal economy and finance.
Minister of commerce and navigation.
Minister of public works.
Minister of police.
Minister of civil and criminal legislation.
Minister of war, and
Minister of religion.

The supreme judicial council, called Gorondje, is composed of five daimios, who assist the Kubo in his decisions on political offences. A senate of 15 daimios or nobles forms a subordinate court cognizant of civil and criminal cases.*

There is no country in the world in which the laws are so few and so strict, and even cruel and vindictive, as those of Japan. Did not all writers agree on this subject, we should be disposed to discredit the accounts which are given. Most crimes are punished with death, even perjury, or the smallest theft. Scarcely any distinction is made between crimes, every one being regarded as an audacious and unpardonable attempt to transgress the hallowed laws of the empire, and to violate justice. Fines are regarded by the Japanese as repugnant to reason and equity, because the rich may thereby be absolved from all punishments. Gambling is a capital offence, punishable with death. He who kills another, even though innocently, and in his own defence, dies without mercy ; but if he kill one maliciously, and not in self-defence, he not only dies, but all his kindred, father, mother, brothers, sisters, and all related to him by blood, and all his slaves, are put to death with him at the same time, for his crime alone. It is a literal carrying out of " the punishment of the sins of the father upon sons unto the third and fourth generation." The crimes for which all the family or kindred are put to death are extortion, coining, arson, murder, and many others. The estate of the whole family is also confiscated. Such severity is doubtless resorted to, more to replenish the public treasury than to satisfy their horror of crime. Favor is shown only to princes and nobles, who are sometimes banished to the barren island of *Faitsensima*, where they are kept in a half-starved condition.

The modes of punishment are the most cruel imaginable. Decapitation, ripping open the body, roasting before a slow fire, dipping in boiling oil or water, quartering the body by attaching a horse to each limb, are very ordinary punishments. Gentlemen and soldiers are allowed to be their own executioners, by ripping up their own bodies. All others must submit to the public executioner.

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* McCulloch's Geog. Dict., Art. Japan.

Masters have the power of putting a servant to death for the slightest offence, the master being the judge. The torture is also used to extort evidence. Dealing in contraband goods is punished with death, and the punishment extends to every individual concerned in the traffic, both buyer and seller. The prisons are gloomy and horrid abodes, containing places for torture and executions. The police is extremely strict, and in the large towns each street has a chief officer, called the *ottona*, who is responsible for the maintenance of order, the punishment of delinquents, and the registration of births, marriages and deaths. Besides these, four superintendents regulate the economy of the towns, and rigorously punish, often with death, the most trifling infraction of public order or peace, information of which is obtained by an established system of *espionage*. In every village there is a place surrounded with palisades, containing in the middle an inscription, in large characters, consisting of a code of police regulations. The inhabitants in each street of a town are accountable in a body for the offences committed by any one of their number.

REVENUES.—The public revenue of Japan consists of the proceeds of taxes on lands and houses. All lands are assumed to be the property of the state, and are rated according to their fertility. The taxes are very high, exceeding, it is said, sometimes one-half or even three-fourths of the produce. This is difficult to believe. Tenants who neglect the cultivation of their land are punished by ejectment. Houses are rated according to their extent of street frontage, and the amount in which the holders are mulcted is greatly increased by forced presents to the civil officers, and dues for maintaining the temples and idols. The actual amount of the emperor's revenues is unknown; but it may be inferred that the land tax, and the contributions from the daimios, or governors of provinces, who farm the taxes, is an immense sum. According to Dr. Talbot Watts, "late in the service of the Hon. B. E. I. Company," the revenues of the Japanese lords amount to 73,600,000 crowns, or about $82,000,000. The same writer declares that the emperor has vast treasures of gold and silver hoarded up in his numerous castles—that the amount is rapidly increasing, and that the emperor's revenue for only two months is sufficient to defray his enormous expenses for a whole year. It is highly probable that the wealth of the emperor is enormous, as the Japanese have had neither rebellions nor wars to exhaust their treasury for near 200 years. During this long period of profound peace wealth has immensely accumulated. Some of the lords have a yearly revenue of more than 2,000,000 of crowns.*

JAPANESE ARMY.—The standing army of the emperor is 100,000 foot and 20,000 horse, as a peace establishment. Besides these, the lords are obliged to maintain, when required, a certain number of soldiers in proportion to their revenue. This enables the emperor to call into the field, at any time, an army of 368,000 foot and 38,800 horse, in addition to his regular army of 100,000 foot and 20,000 horse. Most of the lords maintain, out of a mere love of show, and to please the emperor, twice as many soldiers as they are required to support.*

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* Varenius, in his Description of Japan, has given an account of the revenues of Japan for each province separately. He makes the sum total 2,834 Dutch tons of gold, which, valuing the ton at £10,000, would be upwards of £20,000,000 sterling, or $97,200,000, without reckoning the provinces and towns which depend immediately on the emperor. But these revenues are not to be considered as national, being paid in kind to the different princes.

The cavalry are armed with corselets, but the foot have only headpieces. The offensive arms of the horse are short muskets, half-pikes, bows and arrows and cimeters. The foot wear two cimeters, and carry muskets, pikes, and large knives. They are divided into companies of fifty soldiers each, and commanded by a captain, lieutenant, and ten corporals. Five companies form a body, who are commanded by one officer, and every fifty companies have their colonel.

The artillery consists of only a few brass cannon and light pieces. The generals have no permanent office, being appointed in case of war by the emperor or princes. Discipline and fortifications are little understood, and their batteries consist usually of a few odd-looking walls, raised without either order or apparent object.

Religion.—The Japanese believe that they are descended from the gods, and consequently they regard Europeans as beings of a very inferior order in the scale of creation. Their religion is the grossest paganism. They are divided into numerous religious sects, each maintaining very opposite tenets; yet, notwithstanding this, they live together in great harmony and concord, difference of opinion not being considered by them as any cause for dissension. Christians would do well to imitate this. It was not for their religion that the Jesuits became offensive to them; but for their want of toleration, their desire to subject all to Christianity, whether they believed in it or not, and their haughty, grasping disposition, and their wish, finally, to overthrow the government.

The number of their deities is so great that almost every trade has its tutelary divinity, after the manner of the ancient Greeks and Romans. They believe in the existence of an eternal, omnipotent spirit, supreme in power and might. Their principal priests are appointed by the ecclesiastical emperor, and every sect has its respective temples and idols. Their temples are always built on the highest places. The priests in each are very numerous, and perform scarcely any other functions than keeping the temples clean, lighting the fires and lamps, and presenting offerings of flowers to their idols. No sermons are preached, no hymns sung. Such as please to pay their devotions are at all times welcome to approach and leave their offerings. Even strangers are not forbidden to enter the temples, and even to take up their lodgings in them at night when they cannot find lodgings elsewhere. In this our Christian land, the poor man who has no money to pay for a night's lodging, would be treated as a criminal, and dragged to a prison, if found sleeping even on the hard stone steps of a Christian church!

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* Watts: *Japan and the Japanese*, p. 14.

The Japanese believe in the immortality of the soul, and in a future state of rewards and punishments. According to their traditions, the souls of the virtuous have a place assigned them immediately under heaven, while those of the wicked are doomed to wander to and fro under the canopy of the sky, in order to expiate their sins. They do not believe in the transmigration of souls. "The whole tenor of their doctrine," says the Rev. Thomas Smith, "has no other object than to render mankind virtuous in this life. Their chief and universal care is to preserve a good conscience, and to pay due obedience to the laws of their sovereign. They abstain from animal food, are loth to shed blood, and will not touch any dead body."

They believe that the souls of foxes are devils, and these are their only devils. Believing that their gods know all things, they think, therefore, that it is unnecessary to pray to them. There is no visible representation of the Almighty in any of their temples, though sometimes they keep in a box a small image of the inferior deity to whom the temple is dedicated. Tensio-Dai-Sin is the most ancient of their gods. His temple is at Isie. It is very old, and has no other ornaments than a mirror and slips of white paper hung about the walls, to denote that nothing impure can be acceptable to God, and that from his all-seeing eye nothing can be hid. All are expected to make a pilgrimage to this temple at least once in their lives. Pilgrimages are very common in Japan, in which great austerities are practised.

Nunneries have been established in Japan upwards of a thousand years. These belong to the Buddhists, whose religion was introduced from China in the 6th century. There are also *Jambos*, or mountain monks, who live a secluded and ascetic life; also blind monks, who have deprived themselves of sight, that they might not behold vice around them. Occasionally, in pursuance of vows, men entirely naked are met with, who are on a visit to the different temples. Multitudes of religious beggars, with shaved heads, are also to be seen in the streets; and singing girls, in the assumed habits of nuns, procure from the rich large sums.

. The oldest form of religious worship in Japan does not at all resemble that of the Chinese or Buddhists. This is the purest sect in Japan. It teaches the doctrine of a heaven for the good and a hell for the bad; also the immortality of the soul. In every Japanese house is an oratory, in which the natives offer up, morning and evening, prayers to the supreme deity, through the mediation of the mikado, or of inferior spirits called *kami*, they believing that the supreme deity is too great to be addressed in prayer directly. The *kami* consists of 492, who were born spirits, and 2,640, who are canonized mortals. To these kami temples are erected. Large gates and triumphal arches lead to the temples, which, with the buildings of the priests, form often stately edifices. Various eatables are offered up to the kami as sacrifices, and anciently human beings were sacrificed. The priests are allowed to marry.

The doctrines of the Buddhists of Japan are divided into two classes: those of the priests, the *Esoteric;* and those of the people, the *Exoteric.* According to the first, man sprang from *nothing*, and therefore has no evil in him originally. The soul within is God guiding our actions, and by following the bent of the soul we escape evil. The soul is immortal, and after death resides in the palace of God, if good; but if bad, it floats eternally in the void of space. When a virtuous man is needed on earth, a soul is sent from heaven to occupy here below a human body. The *Exoteric* doctrines are: that in the other world, before the great judge, *Emaoo*, stands a large mirror, in which the actions of all mankind are imaged forth. Near this mirror stand two spirits, who observe and report the deeds of every person, and a third records them in a book—the Book of Life —by which the souls of the dead will ultimately be judged, and, according to their sentences, sent to their places of rewards and punishments. *Amida*, the saving deity, is the god of paradise; and the way to ensure a journey on the *gokurak*, or road to paradise, (one only out of six to which departed spirits may be sent,) is an obedience to the five commandments, viz.: not to kill any living creature; not to lie; not to commit adultery; not to get drunk; and not to steal. One of the roads for the dead is *Tsikusyo*, or the road to the hell of animals; and hence the Buddhists of Japan believe in the transmigration of souls into animals as well as men.

There is also in Japan the sect of *Syuntoo*, which professes the morality of Confucius. It is quite separate from any of the above mentioned creeds, and has existed in Japan since A. D. 59. There, as in China, its only object is the inculcation of a virtuous life in this world, without reference to any after state of existence.

The priests of Buddha, in Japan, are called Bonzes. They are very numerous, comprising both males and females. They are under a vow of celibacy, as in other countries, and have convents for both sexes.

A few days after the commencement of the new year, is performed the ceremony of trampling on such images as represent the Cross, the Virgin Mary, and Jesus Christ. This ceremony is required by the government, in order to imprint on the minds of the people an abhorrence of Christianity, or more properly speaking, of that form of it which the Portuguese introduced; and also to discover, in this way, whether any remains of it still remain in Japan; for which reason the ceremony is chiefly performed in such places as were formerly most frequented by the Christians. At Nangasaki it continues four days, after which the images are laid by till the next year. Every native inhabitant, except the governor and his attendants, must be present at this ceremony. Captain Golownin says, that the people are not only required to trample on the cross, but also on other insignia of the Roman faith. There is a law in Japan forbidding any one hiring a servant without receiving first a certificate of his not being a Christian. When a person dies at Nangasaki, they produce witnesses to testify that the person was not a Christian at the time of his death; nay, they examine the corpse with the utmost care, in order to be convinced that there is no mark of Christianity about it, or of any punishment inflicted on that account; after which they draw up a certificate in favor of the deceased.

POPULATION OF JAPAN.—The exact population of Japan is unknown. According to the most moderate estimates it is about 50,000,000, exclusive of the inhabitants of the Japanese dependencies. The accounts of all travelers concur in assigning to Japan a prodigious population. Thunberg, to give an idea of the denseness of the population, says that the *Tokaido*, the principal of the seven great roads of Japan, is sometimes as much crowded with travelers as the streets of any European capital with passengers. The estimate of 50,000,000 would give only 184 to the square mile, calling the area of Japan 266,000 square miles.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—The people of Japan are divided into eight classes: the princes, nobles, priests, soldiers, civil officers, merchants, artisans, and laborers. The caste system is strictly pursued, and each follows the employment of his fathers, whatever his talents may be for a different pursuit. The Japanese appear to be a mixed race of Mongolian and Malay blood. They are in general well made, active and supple, with yellow complexions, small and deeply set eyes, short and rather flat noses, broad heads, and thick black hair, which is allowed to grow only on the crown. The Japanese dress in loose flowing robes of silk or cotton, the family arms being usually worked into the back and breast of the outer robe. Over the ordinary robes is worn, on state occasions, a robe of ceremony. The males generally wear two or three robes at once; but the women often have on their persons thirty or forty robes, one over the other, and yet all so fine and thin as not to weigh, collectively, more than four or five pounds. The robes are fastened around the body by a belt, four inches broad for the men, and twelve for the women. Stockings are not worn. Their shoes are of rice straw or of rattan, and are generally very poor. The Japanese never enter their houses with their shoes on, but always leave them at the door.

The higher classes wear a sort of trousers, resembling a full plaited petticoat drawn up between the legs. They also wear one or more swords, according to their rank. The lower orders are not allowed to wear swords.. Priests, physicians and youths, are exempt from shaving the head. The women wear their hair long, and arranged in the form of a turban, stuck full of pieces of highly polished tortoise shell. The Japanese ladies paint their faces red and white, stain their lips purple, and their teeth black, after marriage. Hats are only worn when it rains, but the fan is carried at all times, and by all classes. Their gait is awkward, owing partly to their clumsy shoes; but that of the women is the worst, from their so tightly bandaging their hips as to turn their feet inward. Tight shoes are not worn.

Polygamy is not practised, even by the nobles, and far more freedom is permitted to the female sex than in China. Many of the ladies are well educated, and almost all play on musical instruments. Concubines are kept in numbers, varying according to the means of the owner; but they hold a rank much inferior to that of wives. Prostitutes are found in every town, in greater numbers than in any country of Asia except Hindostan; and so little discredit is attached to their abominable profession, that they are visited by married females, and received back without remark into respectable society.* The law allows but one wife, who is at the absolute disposal of the husband. Marriages are contracted by the parents for their children, and the young couple know nothing of what is done, and never see one another till the hour of the ceremony. This is performed in the temple by a bonze, or priest, before the altar of the god of marriage, who has the head of a dog—an emblem of mutual fidelity. The bride, standing before the altar, lights a torch by one of the lamps burning around the temple, at the same time pronouncing a form of words dictated by the priest. The bridegroom next lights his torch by that held by the bride, and the priest dismisses them with his benediction. Two oxen are sacrificed to the god, and the parties retire to their home.†

The Japanese are very tender and indulgent in the education of their children; and though they have an absolute and unlimited authority of life and death over them, yet they very seldom treat them with inhumanity. They endeavor to inspire them with a love of glory, which is their darling passion.

The Japanese merchants are said to be very remarkable for their fairness and strict honesty in all transactions.

A Japanese is certainly in some respects rather a ludicrous object —his head half shaved—the enormous covering of oiled paper in which he is wrapped up when he travels—his salutations, which consist in bending his body repeatedly almost to the earth, and the enormous fan which he constantly carries in his hand, present an extraordinary figure. The Japanese entertain a high sense of honor, and observe towards each other the most ceremonious politeness. Their courtesies and ceremonies are infinite. They have an immense number of books on *etiquette*, teaching how a draught of water should be taken, how to give and receive presents, and all the other minutiæ essential to the refined behavior of a Japanese man of fashion. Lord Chesterfield or Count D'Orsay never dreamed of half the catalogue of refined trifles contained in a Japanese book of etiquette.

A Japanese, proud of the minute cleanliness of his habits, despises the Europeans as a dirty race. He has no idea of our keenness in dispute, and even when loaded with injuries, does not utter one vehement expression; but his pride is deep, rancorous and invincible; and the poniard, which is inseparable from his person, is employed as an instrument of vengeance, when the object does not expect it, or to destroy his own life in case vengeance is impossible.

The bodies of people of rank, when they die, are burned; those of others are buried. The festival of lanterns is celebrated, as in China, to which is added the custom of visiting the groves at stated times. The manes are regaled with food and drink, and treated with songs and compliments.

Public amusements in Japan consist of dramatic entertainments, which are said not to be inferior to those of polished nations. "The great number of dancing girls and boys," says Kämpfer, "announces the relaxation of public morals, which is also evinced by the great number of infamous houses, which are more scandalously protected there than in any other country."

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* Kämpfer, vol. ii., p. 9.

† Watts: *Japan*, p. 24.

The Japanese may in general be reckoned intelligent, brave, courteous, industrious, frugal and upright; but the opposite vices are not wanting.

LANGUAGE.—The language of the Japanese gives no evidence of any foreign extraction. It contains few Chinese terms, and has no resemblance to the Tartar or to that of the Kurile islands. The Japanese words are not monosyllabic, like the Chinese; the conjugations and the syntax have a distinct and original character. The Japanese or Yomi language is used in poetry and in conversation. The priests of Japan write their theological books in Chinese, which is to them what Latin is to us.* The Japanese is a polysyllabic language, with an alphabet of forty-seven letters, and is written in four different sets of characters, one of which, the *katakana*, is used exclusively by the males; while another, the *hiragana*, is appropriated to the females. The Chinese character is only used by the learned.

The Chinese cannot read a Japanese book; but every well educated Japanese can read the books of China. The Japanese books are said to be excellent in mechanical execution. Their types are not movable, and they print only one side of the paper. Their schools are said to be better than those of any other Asiatic country. It is said that strangers are prohibited from learning Japanese. The language is written, like that of the Chinese, in straight lines, upwards and downwards. The Japanese study medicine and astronomy, and construct almanacs with much accuracy. The sciences are taught in their schools. They have books on medicine, astronomy, theology, botany and zoology, with engravings descriptive of plants and animals. The history of Japan has been written with great care by several learned Japanese writers.

We will conclude this paper with a brief account of the expedition now fitting out by the United States government, for the purpose of endeavoring to open a trade with Japan. This has been long in contemplation by our government. Com. Porter, as far back as 1815, addressed a letter to Mr. Monroe on the subject, and it was then intended to send out Com. Porter with a frigate and two sloops of war, but the plan was defeated. Other nations have made the attempt without success. In 1803, the Emperor Alexander of Russia endeavored to open friendly relations with Japan, but he only obtained a peremptory refusal of all intercourse, and his envoys were ordered not to return on pain of death. The Portuguese, French and English have also made ineffectual attempts to establish intercourse.

The expedition now fitting out is to consist of the following vessels: steamer Mississippi, Capt. McCluney; steam-frigate Susquehanna, Capt. Buchanan; steamer Princeton, Commander Sydney Smith Lee; sloop-of-war St. Mary's, Commander Geo. A. McGruder; sloop-of-war Plymouth, Commander John Kelly; sloop-of-war Saratoga, Commander Wm. L. Walker; brig-of-war Perry, Lieut. Fairfax; storeship Supply, Lieut. Arthur St. Clair, and several other vessels.

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* Thunberg: Observationes in Linguam Japonicam.

The Mississippi is the flag-ship, having on board Commodore Perry, commander of the fleet. The Susquehanna, Plymouth and Saratoga, are already in the Pacific, awaiting the arrival of the rest of the squadron. The St. Mary's is now on her way to Japan, having on board the Japanese sailors, and on reaching Japan will wait the arrival of the fleet.

The object of the expedition, as set forth in the letter of President Fillmore to the emperor of Japan, and in the letter of instructions from Daniel Webster to Com. Aulick, both of which have been laid before the public, is "to obtain from the emperor of Japan permission to purchase from his subjects the necessary supplies of coal, which our steamers in their outward and inward voyages to and from India and China may require." If possible, Com. Aulick is directed to negotiate and sign a treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and the Empire of Japan.

On the 30th of April, 1851, the minister of the Netherlands transmitted to our government the following note on the subject of Japan:

"It is a matter of public notoriety, that foreign vessels are excluded from Japan by the government of that empire. It was, nevertheless, determined, in 1842, that if such vessels should be cast upon the shores of Japan by storms, or come there in want of provisions, with a view of asking for such commodities, water, or wood for fuel, those articles should be granted to them on request.

"For fear, however, lest this determination, prompted as it has been by feelings of humanity, should give rise to any false interpretation, the government of Japan has solicited that of the Netherlands to inform the other powers that the abovementioned resolution does not infringe upon, or otherwise imply any modification whatever of the system of separation and exclusion, which was adopted more than two centuries ago by the Japanese government, and since the establishment of which the prohibition against allowing any foreign vessel to explore the Japanese coasts, has been constantly in force. The Dutch government has made no difficulty of complying with this request, especially as the government of Japan has no other means of making a communication of this nature; and in pursuance of instructions from the cabinet of the Hague, the legation of the Netherlands has the honor to communicate the abovementioned facts to the Hon. Secretary of State of the United States, for the information of his government."

It is estimated that a direct trade between this country and Japan would be worth to us at least $200,000,000 annually.

The objects of the present expedition to Japan are entirely peaceful, and simply to offer propositions to the Japanese which would be beneficial to both nations. The exercise of no force whatever is contemplated; though it cannot be a question that we would be quite justifiable in compelling the Japanese to deliver up all American captives that may now be in their possession. It is stated by writers that there are numerous European and American captives now in the hands of the Japanese, and that they are "exhibited in iron cages in various parts of the Japanese territory." Of the truth of such reports we cannot speak confidently; but it is certainly a matter that our government ought to inquire into. If the reports are true, the remedy is plain; and our government is able to apply it effectually.

We cannot better conclude this article than with an extract from a work which has appeared within a few weeks in England,* and has been republished in New-York, containing the fullest accounts of Japan in every particular, and a very minute sketch of the history of her European connections, from the earliest times:

> "The attention of the whole civilized world is now fixed on the American expedition. This cannot be made a merely national object; its character must be essentially cosmopolitan. We rejoice to see that the subject has claimed the attention of our own mercantile classes, and that efforts are making to diffuse authentic information concerning it. We must not be outstripped in the East even by the Americans.
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> "It was the opinion of the illustrious Humboldt, that an opportunity for opening a liberal and honorable communication between Europe and Japan, would not occur until the two great oceans (the Atlantic and the Pacific) should be united by a canal cut across the Isthmus of Panama, when the productions of the west and northwest coasts of America, China, and Japan, would be brought more than 6,000 miles nearer Europe and the United States, and when alone any great change could be effected in the political and commercial policy of eastern Asia. 'For this neck of land,' said Humboldt, 'has been for ages the bulwark of the independence of China and Japan.'
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> "A very recent English writer says, 'Since, however, this opinion was expressed, the bulwark has been breached, and various circumstances have transpired to alter the features of the case, and to bring about a rapid change in the tide of commerce,' and the progress of trade. The British have established themselves on the frontiers of China, and in the heart of the Eastern Archipelago, and have compelled respect to their flag and freedom to their trade. Energy and enterprise have constructed a rail-road across the Isthmus of Panama, and the gold discoveries of California, and the colonization of Vancouver's Island, have settled a vast and industrious population on the western sea-board of the American continent, and led to the establishment of new lines of steam navigation, and an immense tide of commerce and emigration. The opening of the Nicaragua, Tehuantepec, and other practicable routes of intercommunication between different points on the Atlantic and Pacific, has been undertaken by various companies. Steam communication has been extended from India to China, and recently to our Australasian settlements, by the way of Singapore and Java. There has also been a great increase in the European and American shipping employed in the India and China trade in general commerce, and the whale-fishery on the Pacific. The Americans, particularly, have largely extended their whaling fleet, and prosecuted the fishery very successfully to the seas and coasts of Japan and her northern dependencies, to the gulfs of Tartary and Okotsk, the Sea of Kamtschatka, Behring's Straits, and the Arctic Ocean.
>
> "'The port of San Francisco, California, is destined to become the great mart and entrepot for American commerce on the Pacific, with China, Japan, and all the maritime countries of Asia, Polynesia, Oceanica, and Australasia, which embrace an aggregate population of upwards of six hundred millions. Our own excellent port and harbor of Sidney, from proximity and central situation, having

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*Japan—Geographical, Historical, Statistical, etc., by Chs. McFarlane, Esq., author of British India, Life of Wellington, etc., with illustrations. New-York: Geo. P. Putnam & Co., 10 Park Place. 1852.

now the advantages of regular steam communication, possesses even superior advantages for carrying on a most extensive and lucrative trade with the coasts and islands of Asia and the Eastern Archipelago.

"'Japan is directly opposite the American possessions on the Pacific coast, and the two great islands of Niphon and Jesso from the Strait of Sangar, through which hundreds of its whale fleet are compelled annually to pass. To land, however, on any of the shores of this empire for supplies of wood, water, or the necessaries of life, or to be forced upon them by stress of weather, subjects the unfortunate whaler to robbery and death.

"'Japan not only refuses to hold commercial intercourse with the rest of the world—a very questionable right; but she goes further; and, occupying, as she does, an enormous extent of seacoast, not only refuses to open her ports to foreign vessels in distress, but actually opens her batteries upon them when they approach within gun-shot of her shores. And when driven upon them by stress of weather, she seizes upon, imprisons, exhibits in cages, and actually murders the crews of such ill-fated vessels.

"'The world, however, is one of progress; and in the march of human events it is highly probable that the Japanese will be persuaded of the error of their present policy, and induced to pursue a more liberal course.

"'The insular geographical position of Japan, her excellent ports and harbors, dense and industrious population, her boundless productive resources and vast capabilities for commerce, the superior intelligence and refinement of her princes and nobles, together with the skill, energy, and enterprise of the Japanese people, justly entitle her to rank above every other Asiatic nation. By a judicious relaxation of her restrictive policy, all these unrivaled, natural and political advantages could be made available for conducting a very extensive and profitable trade with various countries both on the Atlantic and Pacific, without compromising either her sovereignty, national religion, or peculiar institutions.

"'This isolated and mysterious empire, which has been since 1637 hermetically sealed to all foreign intercourse and trade, except with the Chinese and Dutch, will now be compelled by force of circumstances to succumb to the progressive commercial spirit of the age, and the Japanese islands will eventually become in the East what the British islands are in the West.'"

ART. II.—THE STATES OF EUROPE—SPAIN.

HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY—EXTENT AND PHYSICAL FEATURES—MINERAL, VEGETABLE, AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS—AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE—TAXATION—REVENUE AND FINANCES—ARMY AND NAVY—LOCAL DIVISIONS—COLONIES—POPULATION, AMOUNT AND CHARACTER—RELIGION AND EDUCATION—LANGUAGE, LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS, ETC., ETC.

[Concluded from October No.]

TAXATION.—The taxes which are now paid by the nation, and have been for years, are very oppressive. They are divided into *rentas generales* and *rentas provinciales.* All Spain, except Biscay, pays the former; and they comprise the revenue coming from the post-office, stamp duties, customs, etc., and the royal monopolies of salt, gunpowder and tobacco. The second kind of taxes is collected only in the provinces belonging to the crown of Castile, the other provinces paying others of a different and less burdensome character. Of the different species of taxes, that called formerly the *alcabala* (already spoken of) was the most injurious and oppressive. It does not now exist in the objectionable form which it once had, having been changed into local duties paid on bringing products into towns and villages. After the *alcabala*, the *tithe* is the tax most complained of by the people. In 1820, it amounted to 335,694,000 reals ($16,784,700;) but the clergy, to whom the tithe appertains, never at any time received all it yielded, and at present only a small portion indeed, notwithstanding the guarantees of the government. Other taxes are the *frutos civiles*, a direct tax on land, trade and manufactures; *medias annatas*, the first half year's rent of all entailed lands upon the succession of the heir; *lanzas*, a composition tax in lieu of furnishing troops; *subsidio del comercio*, a tax of about $500,000, levied on merchants; *paja y utensilio*, a tax for the support of the army; and taxes on houses, patents, lotteries, bull-fights, etc. The revenue derived from salt is obtained by assessment; that from tobacco, however, falls only upon the actual consumer. An exemption from a number of petty taxes has been obtained by Navarre and Biscay by the payment of an annual contribution amounting to about $700,000.

REVENUE AND FINANCES.—The finances of Spain are in a very disordered and almost hopeless condition, a deficit occurring every year, notwithstanding the large sums which are raised from the customs and from taxation. All the money thus raised, together with that obtained from the sale of church property, has not so far sufficed to meet the current expenses of the country, and pay the annual interest upon the national debt. This debt in 1841 had amounted to 14,160,968,047 ($703,048,402.) At present it is estimated at *twenty thousand millions* of reals, or *one thousand millions* of dollars (1,000,000,000.) In 1841 the deficit amounted to 174,421,846 reals. In 1845 it ought to have amounted, according to an official statement published that year, to only 45,112,665 reals, the expenditure of the government being reckoned at 1,250,635,343, and the revenue at 1,205,522,688 reals. Yet it reached more than double the sum at which it had been estimated. Now, how are we to account for this constant deficit in the revenue of the government? Ungewitter (*Europe, Past and Present*, pp. 81, 82,) gives the following solution, which seems upon the whole not improbable:

> "Sifting the question to the bottom, the riddle is soon solved. The leaders of the Spanish revolution have been in the skill of making money quite as experienced and assiduous as the leaders of the Portuguese revolution. Thus, for instance, the Spanish minister of finances, Mr. *Mendizabal*, had been for years but a poor Jewish peddler, yet by his shrewdness he insinuated himself into the favor of the queen regent, Christiana, who appointed him minister of finances. This office furnished ample opportunities for him to fill his pockets, as well as those of his adherents and of his benefactress. He sold the estates of convents, a great deal of church property, sacred vessels and utensils; nay, even church-bells; and according to official returns for the month of June, 1835, the sum received out of the sale of 559 estates of convents, amounted to 16,693,260 reals; and according to official returns for the same month, 1840, the sum received out of the sale of 31,433 estates of convents and churches, amounted to 1,245,549,569 reals. Now it is a fact that the Spanish people have not since been released from a single item of their taxes, which number not less than ninety-four of various descriptions; but, on the contrary, they have at present to pay more taxes than ever, while the *ci-devant* poor peddler, by his industry in financial affairs, has amassed a

fortune to the amount of at least $3,000,000! If Mr. Mendizabal should be asked to give an account of his stewardship, and to restore all property illegally acquired, he would indeed be reduced to very low circumstances, and that deservedly. For he has evidently despoiled the public treasure of the Spanish nation, and to these spoliations alone does he owe his wealth. His predecessors as well as his successors in that lucrative office, have practised the same arts, and in this way acquired immense riches; while the Spanish nation has been burdened with taxes at the ratio of more than 120 reals per head."

ARMY AND NAVY.—The army of Spain is in good order; and it is prudently kept so, for it forms the support of the government. It now numbers 100,000, forming 31 regiments, and 3 battalions of foot, 18 regiments of cavalry, and about 12,600 artillerists. The soldiers are brave, and will follow a good leader faithfully; but Spain has at present but few good officers. In the wars which have of late devastated the peninsula, there were found in the army no distinguished generals, the best being merely good guerilla leaders.

The navy of Spain is reduced to almost nothing when compared with its former power. Even in 1802, it consisted of 68 ships of the line, 40 frigates, &c. In 1834, it numbered only 2 ships of the line, 4 frigates, and 18 smaller vessels; and even most of these have now become unfit for service. Cadiz is the only navy station; formerly there were three, Ferrol, Cadiz and Carthagena.

LOCAL DIVISIONS.—In 1833, Spain was divided into 48 departments, the names of which are the same as their capitals. Since an early period, however, the country has been divided into 17 provinces, the names of which are constantly occurring in all that is written upon Spain and its institutions. Eleven of these provinces constituted the dominions of the Crown of Castile; the other six were those of the Crown of Arragon. The eleven that belonged to Castile are the following: 1. *The Kingdom of New Castile,* near the centre of the peninsula. Between it and the Mediterranean lay, on the east, Valencia; on the south, Andalusia. Ferdinand, surnamed the Holy, took it in 1085 from the Moors. 2. *The Kingdom of Old Castile,* situated north of New Castile, and extending to the Bay of Biscay. Originally it was under the rule of the kings of Leon; but in 1016 it became a kingdom. 3. *The Kingdom of Leon,* lying between Old Castile and Portugal. It was originally the kingdom of Asturias, founded by Pelagio, but was called Leon after its enlargement. 4. *The Principality of Asturias,* situated along the Bay of Biscay, between Old Castile and Gallicia, and bordered on the south by Leon. It was founded by Pelagio. 5. *The Kingdom of Gallicia,* the extreme northwestern part of the peninsula. It was taken from the Moors at an early period, and was made, in 1060, by Ferdinand of Castile and Leon, a kingdom. 6. *The Province of Estremadura,* lying between New Castile and Portugal, and having Andalusia on its southern border. The Moors overran and conquered it in 713; but it was recovered in the 11th and the 13th centuries. 7. *The Kingdom of Seville;* 8. *The Kingdom of Cordova;* 9. *The Kingdom of Jaen,* all three forming *Andalusia,* which lies in the south of Spain, north of Granada. It was wrested from the Moors mainly during the 13th century. 10. *The Kingdom of Granada,* sometimes called *Upper Andalusia,* the south of Spain, bordering on the Mediterranean. In 1492, it was conquered from the Moors by Ferdinand and Isabella. 11. *The Kingdom of Murcia*, situated partly on the sea, and lying between Andalusia on the west, and Valencia on the east.

The six kingdoms which belonged to Arragon are the following: 1. *The Kingdom of Arragon*, between Catalonia and the two Castiles, and bordered on the north by the Pyrenees. The marriage of the king of this province to Isabella of Castile, united all Spain into one kingdom. 2. *The Principality of Catalonia*, the northeastern extremity of Spain; noted for its commerce during the middle ages. 3. *The Kingdom of Valencia*, lying between New Castile and the Mediterranean, bordered on the south by Murcia, and on the north by Arragon and Catalonia. Taken by the Moors in 788; but recaptured in 1238, by the king of Arragon, now the best cultivated province in Spain. 4. *The Kingdom of Majorca*, or the *Balearic Islands*, in the Mediterranean, opposite Valencia. The Carthagenians first took possession of these islands; then the Romans; then the Vandals (429, A. D.;) then the Moors (798;) then King James I. of Arragon (1229–1254.) Two of them, *Majorca* (1,342 square miles, population 200,000) and *Minorca* (256 square miles, 50,000 inhabitants) are called the Balearic Islands. There are two more, *Ivica* (192 square miles, population 20,000) and *Formentara* (43 square miles, population 2,000) called the Pithyusian islands. 5. *The Kingdom of Navarre*, between Arragon and the Basque provinces, having the Pyrenees on the north. 6. *The Basque Provinces*, situated along the Bay of Biscay, and having Navarre and Old Castile on its other sides. It became connected with Old Castile, not by conquest, but by treaty (1202.)

Spanish Colonies.—These have been reduced to an area of 110,760 square miles, with a population of 4,500,000. They are, in *Africa*, the *Presidios*, four fortified towns on the northern coast of Africa, opposite Granada; the *Canary Islands*, and two islands in the Gulf of Guinea; in *America*, they are *Cuba* and *Porto Rico;* in *Asia*, the greater part of the *Philippine* islands; in *Polynesia*, the *Ladrone* islands.

Population.—The population of Spain must be determined by an estimate, as it has not of late years been done by census. In 1787 it was reported by returns then made, to be 10,268,000, and now it is conjectured with a good degree of probability to be about 12,000,000; of this number 500,000 are *Basques*, descendants of the ancient Cantabrians, resident in the *Basque* provinces and Navarre; 60,000 *Modejares* or Morescoes, resident in Granada and the Alpujairas; about 45,000 *Gitanos* or Gipseys, and the remainder Castilians or Spaniards proper. The Gipseys, unlike those of England and other European countries, reside in the towns and pursue some settled occupation. They are found throughout the peninsula, but principally upon its southeastern coasts. Of the number of the population, according to the census of 1787, 188,600 were churchmen, 61,000 of them being monks, 32,500 nuns, and 2,700 inquisitors; 480,000 were *hidalgos*, of whom about 400,000 belonged to Asturias, Biscay, Burgos, Gallicia, and Leon; 34,000 were merchants, 40,000 manufacturers, 271,000 artisans, 907,000 peasants, 960,000 day-laborers, and 280,000 domestic male servants.

The Spaniards are a people of moderate stature, thin, but well proportioned; having dark hair, black eyes, sharp features, and sallow complexions. Their character is marked by striking features. The genuine Spaniard is proud, but affable and polite; grave, but courteous; slow and deliberate in movement, but, when roused, impetuous and rash; constitutionally and by habit, lazy, but eager and untiring in the pursuit of any favorite scheme; fearful of exertion, but capable of great endurance; improvident and hot-headed; a warm friend, but a most vindictive enemy; a pleasant companion, adventurous, romantic, generous and honorable. He has a high opinion of himself and of his country; is fond of show and ostentation; temperate in eating and drinking; bigoted and jealous, but not as much so as formerly; sentimental, but not noted for high-toned morality. In society he is, according to the accounts of travelers, highly courteous and agreeable. On this point Col. Napier (*Peninsular War*) says: "There is not upon the face of the earth a people so attractive in the friendly intercourse of society. Their majestic language, fine persons and becoming dress, their lively imagination, the inexpressible beauty of their women, and the air of romance which they throw over every action and infuse into every feeling, all combine to delude the senses and impose upon the judgment. As companions, *they are, incomparably, the most agreeable of mankind;* but danger and disappointment attend the man, who, confiding in their promises and energy, ventures upon a difficult enterprise. 'Never do to-day what you can put off till to-morrow,' is the favorite proverb in Spain, and rigidly followed." A striking, and in some respects, agreeable description this is indeed, but in the main point how sadly mournful!

The manners and customs of the inhabitants are different in different provinces. The lower classes live on poor food, rarely eating meat; but laborers on the farms fare better. The common food of the latter is bread, soup, garlic, bacon, and *garbanzos*, (Spanish beans,) together with wine and oil. The middle and higher classes have chocolate for breakfast, and eat beef, mutton, and pork, accompanied by cabbage, *garbanzoz*, onions and *chichoros*, (large peas.) A favorite dish is olla, or *cocido;* and the sausages (*chorizos*) of Castile are esteemed great delicacies out of Spain. Wine is used only in small quantities, seldom to excess. The men wear broad-brimmed hats and wide cloaks; the mantilla and the fan are universally used by the women. The wealthy are richly decked with jewels. All classes take a *siesta*, or nap, in the afternoon, during the heat of the day; in the cities, the doors and windows of the shops are closed from one to four o'clock, while their occupants enjoy their wonted siesta. Exercise is taken by nearly all the population in the evening. The theatre is not much resorted to; but evening parties (*tertulias*) are frequent in the cities and large towns. Dancing, accompanied with the castanet, is a national amusement, particularly under the forms known as the *fandango*, (not common in good society,) the *bolero*, a lighter and more graceful dance, and the *guanacho*, the most genteel of the three. Music, especially songs accompanied by the guitar, is much admired. But *bull-fights* are the favorite amusement of all classes in Spain, though they are discountenanced by the government. Descriptions of this diversion are common; we need, therefore, give none here.

RELIGION.—Since the days of Ferdinand, Spain has been noted as the abode of Roman Catholicism. Every other form of religious belief has been rigidly forbidden by law; and even now, notwithstanding that the government has become a limited monarchy, and that the national assembly, the Cortes, are in fact the rulers of the country, Romanism is the religion of the state. It has been found, however, that no very serious legal obstacles are opposed at present to the propagation of Protestant principles among the inhabitants. The hold which Catholicism has upon the people is by no means so strong as it was half a century since; and among certain classes infidelity is becoming prevalent. Spain is noted as the country in which so many persons fell victims to the measures of the Inquisition, a religious tribunal established for the uprooting of heresy from the land. It has been asserted that 13,000 persons were publicly burnt for heresy by the tribunals of Castile and Arragon, between the years 1481 and 1518; and that during the same time, 191,000 suffered other punishments for the same offence; but this is, probably, an exaggeration. Certain it is, however, that the Inquisition succeeded in checking all free inquiry into matters of religion among the Spaniards, and made them slaves to the worst and the most degrading of all despotisms—a despotism that binds the soul and the conscience. The tribunal does not now exist; but attempts were made to revive it by Ferdinand VII., without success.

The Spanish clergy are now poor, and dependent upon the charities of the state. Formerly they held vast landed possessions, which amounted in 1812 to one-fourth the landed property of the kingdom, and produced them a revenue, exclusive of their tithes, etc., of about $50,000,000 annually. The salaries, or rather revenues, of the higher ecclesiastics were very large, that of the Archbishop of Toledo reaching from $300,000 to $400,000 a year. In 1830 the clergy numbered 8 archbishops, (of whom the Archbishop of Toledo is primate,) 77 bishops, 2,393 canons, 1,869 prebendaries, 16,481 curates, 4,929 vicars, 17,411 beneficiaries, 27,757 seculars in orders, 15,015 sacristans, and 3,927 servitors. In 1835 there were yet 1,940 monasteries containing 30,906 monks, and a proportional number of nunneries with 24,000 nuns. During that year, however, 884 of these cloisters were abolished, (all those that contained no more than 12 inmates;) and in the year following, the remainder shared a similar fate;—all conventual establishments and religio-military orders being suppressed, and their property confiscated by the state, to be sold and applied by it to the payment of the public debt and expenses. The sale of the estates of the cloisters abolished in 1835, yielded, according to official reports, 16,693,260 reals, ($834,661, a real being equal to *five* cents.) Since this wholesale despoliation—for despoliation it is, though, like that committed in England by Henry VIII., it may finally result in benefit to the country, as it certainly is a death-blow to the continued rule of Catholicism—the clergy and Catholicism, the established religion, have been wholly dependent upon the state, which, according to the constitution of 1836–37, has undertaken their support; but regarding the execution of this provision, even McCulloch, a warm advocate of the confiscation, is obliged to testify that, "owing to the intestine commotions that have prevailed in the country, and its financial difficulties, this condition has not been effectively carried out; and not a few of the clergy are, at present, (1841,) but little removed from a state of indigence." It will be seen, when we come to consider the revenues and finances, how far the public debt has been discharged by the money arising from the sale of the property so rapaciously snatched from the hands of its true owners without the return of a just equivalent.

EDUCATION.—A thoroughly educated man is a rarity in Spain. The schools and educational establishments have always been under the care of the clergy, and, until its abolition, of the Inquisition. There is now in this particular a promise of improvement. In 1839 there were not, according to the assertion of a member of the Cortes, in all Spain, more than 900 schools of every description—one school to 13,333 inhabitants! The universities of Spain, particularly that of Salamanca, had once a European reputation; but the distractions produced by the late wars have deprived them of most of their revenues and many of their best teachers and professors. There are yet nominally *eight* universities, only two or three of which, however, have the right to give instruction in all branches of science, viz.: that of *Salamanca*, founded in 1222, and having, in 1845, 302 students; *Valladolid*, founded in 1346, and having, in 1841, 1,300 students; *Valencia*, founded in 1401, in 1841, having 1,600 students; *Saragossa*, founded in 1474, in 1841, having 1,100 students; *Seville*, founded in 1504, in 1845, having 800 students; *Granada*, founded in 1531, in 1845, having 810 students; *St. Jago*, founded in 1532, in 1845, having 1,030 students; and *Oviedo*, founded in 1580, in 1845, having 450 students. Other universities, those of Huesca, Alcala, Toledo, Orihuela, Cervera and Palma, have been transformed into secondary schools. In 1832 Spain still possessed 56 colleges and seminaries, containing altogether 3,810 pupils, and 774 Latin schools; but they were all, and are now, in a languishing condition. Until a system of education more thorough and more general than that now existing be adopted, it is vain to hope for any material improvement in the conduct and management of the government.

LANGUAGE, LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS.*—The Cantabrian was, in all probability, the language originally spoken in Spain. The modern Basque, spoken by the Biscayans, and by the people of those districts which border on the Pyrenees, is supposed to be a corrupted form of the tongue which was predominant in the peninsula. During the dominion of the Phœnicians, and subsequently of the Carthaginians, the Punic (the same essentially as the Hebrew) must have mingled itself in some measure, particularly along the southern sea-coast, with the language of the original natives. Subsequently, on the conquest and occupation of the country by the Romans, the Latin was introduced, and became the national tongue, except in the remoter districts. The Visigoths, who captured Spain from its last conquerors, introduced the *lingua Romana*, a language formed by the admixture of German and Latin elements; while the Moors, who drove back the Visigoths, introduced the Arabic, (akin to the Hebrew,) which soon became the general language of the country. From these elements was gradually formed a new language, which we now call *the Spanish.* Many different dialects of this composite tongue soon arose; but, at length, that of Castile predominated in polite usage, and became the classical language of the country. The basis of this language is Latin; very many of its words, and quite a number of the inflections of the latter being preserved in the Spanish. A large number of Teutonic words are embodied in the language; and also of Arabic, though there are not so many of the latter as we find in the Portuguese. The Spanish abounds in vowels and liquids; is mellifluous, sonorous, and forcible; and is admirably adapted to oratory and to poetry. Unlike the French, many of whom use and know only a *patois*, or vulgar dialect, the Castilians, even the lower classes, speak the Spanish with purity and exactness.

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* For an elaborate paper upon the Literature of Spain, by the Editor, see vol. ix. of the Review.

The rise of the literature of Spain, properly so called, may be dated about the middle of the 12th century, about which time was composed the celebrated *Cid*, more correctly, perhaps, styled *el Campeador*, a collection of ballads written in honor of Rodrigo Diaz de Vivar, and which belong to the earliest specimens of Spanish literature. It is in dramatic composition that Spanish writers have excelled. The first who was noted in this species of writing was Torres de Naharro, who lived in the early part of the 16th century. The two most celebrated writers of dramas are Lopez de Vega, (born 1562,) and Calderon, (born 1600.) The drama, however, has fallen into decay in Spain. Chivalrous romances were much written and were great favorites in the country, until the publication of *Don Quixote*, Cervantes' world-renowned satire. In epic poetry, Spain boasts only one great work, the Araucana of Ercilla, (born 1525,) and this stands not in the first rank among epics. History has been written with some success by Mariana, Herrera and De Solis. Modern writers of great distinction Spain has not; among the most prominent are Campomañes, Ustariz, Jovellanos, and Arguelles, (writers on the resources of Spain;) Moratin, (in the drama;) Yriarte, Isla, Valdez, and De la Rosa, (on miscellaneous subjects.) The literary spirit is, it is hoped, beginning to be again aroused. Periodical literature is meeting with patronage, and the best writers of the country contribute to the magazines of the day. There are some extensive public libraries in Spain; that in Madrid contains 130,000 volumes, and has, besides, many valuable manuscripts, and a rich collection of medals.

The fine arts, especially painting, once flourished in the Spanish peninsula. The works of Murillo, Ribeira, (self-styled Spagnoletto,) and Velasquez, have been diffused throughout Europe, and are greatly admired by competent judges. The royal palaces and many of the dwellings of the nobles are adorned with magnificent collections of paintings. The nobles do not seem to value these as much as they deserve. Efforts have of late years been made to revive a taste for painting in Spain, but so far without apparent success.

ART. III.—THE RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

PROGRESS AND OPERATIONS OF THE RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES—FREIGHTS, PASSENGERS, RESULTS, INFLUENCES ON LANDS, ON CITIES—CONNECTION OF THE SOUTH WITH THE WEST—THE ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAIL-ROAD—PROSPECTS OF THE FUTURE, ETC.

In every part of the South and Southwest we have been emulating the example of our thrifty neighbors of the North, and are beginning to show a degree of enterprise and spirit, at least in the matter of rail-roads, not to be shamed in the comparison with their own. New-Orleans and Mobile, Savannah, Charleston and Richmond and Baltimore, are projecting and carrying out their great systems of public works, rivaling in every respect those of Boston and New-York. The occasion is a fit one for some reflections upon the rail-road system of our country, which may be of much use in aiding our own defective experiences at home.

The rail-road system of the United States is now being gradually developed towards completion by the annual filling up of gaps in connections which, perfected, present a mighty network of rails that put every section of the Union in familiar communication. It is remarkable that private enterprise, called forth, in order to provide for some local want, has, in the absence of any grand national design, gradually developed a comprehensive system which the most careful foresight of government would scarcely have carried out so successfully. It is remarkable, that while every state project has ended in ruin, individual enterprise has supplied the desideratum. The formation of one line of rail-road in any given direction prepares the way for its extension beyond the limits first proposed, and indeed soon renders the extension a matter of social necessity. Through the working of such a *piece-meal* system, it undoubtedly happens that lines are formed which do not fulfil, in the highest degree, the full and general benefits of more comprehensive plans; the best route, in a general view, between the most important points of the country, is not likely to be thus adopted; but by thus connecting local wants, and meeting the demands of local interests, works which in the end are brought to form parts of a comprehensive whole are sooner undertaken, and the country thus gains, in point of time, to a degree which will for many years fully compensate for any diminished amount of convenience.

In the United States, rail-roads in all sections, subservient to all interests, commercial, mining, manufacturing, agricultural and trading, have been multiplied to the number of 337, of an average length of 34 miles. Of these, 200 rail-roads have been built in the last eight years; each new one has necessarily compelled new connections, until the whole form eight routes of communication across the continent, east and west, and north and south; and the connections which complete the rails between New-Orleans and Augusta, Maine, via New-York and Boston, are being rapidly supplied. We may briefly sketch the roads on one of these great routes, say Augusta to Mobile:

Name of Road.	Points of Connection.	Miles.	Fare.
Kennebec & Portland	Augusta to Portland	60	$1 50
Boston & Maine	Portland to Boston	111	2 00
Boston & Worcester	Boston to Worcester	45	1 15
Western	Worcester to Springfield	54	1 50
Springfield & New-Haven	Springfield to New-Haven	62	1 75
New-York & New-Haven	New-Haven to New-York	76	1 50
New-York & Philadelphia	New-York to Philadelphia	87	3 00
Philadelphia & Baltimore	Philadelphia to Baltimore	98	3 10
Washington Branch	Baltimore to Washington	40	1 80
Richmond & Fredericksburg	Washington to Richmond	130	5 50
Richmond & Petersburgh	Richmond to Petersburg	11	1 00
Petersburgh	Petersburg to Weldon	43	3 00
Wilmington & Weldon	Weldon to Wilmington	134	5 00
Wilmington & Manchester	Wilmington to Manchester	168	6 00
Camden Branch	Manchester to Brownsville	37	1 75
South Carolina	Brownsville to Augusta	75	2 00
Lagrange	Atlanta to West Point	87	3 50
Montgomery & West Point	West Point to Montgomery	88	4 00

This chain of 1,406 miles is formed by eighteen entirely distinct roads, the connection of each of which is based only upon mutual interest. The charge on the whole route is $49, or about 3½ cts. per mile, average—the charge being much higher per mile upon the southern than upon the northern roads, a fact which it is well to bear in mind when we come to consider the comparative influence of rail-roads north and south. The whole number of miles of rail-road in operation in 1852 is 11,565, and the cost $335,150,848, which is an average of $29,000 per mile. The cost in the New-England states is much higher per mile than either in the southern or the western. The following table gives the length and cost in each state:

RECAPITULATION.

States	No. of Railways.	Miles in operation including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Maine	10	283	175	$8,191,693
New-Hampshire	16	463	76	14,144,755
Vermont	9	369	167	13,116,553
Massachusetts	37	1,153	67	51,884,572
Rhode Island	1	50	—	2,614,484
Connecticut	13	570	64	18,198,599
New-York	44	1,946	946	67,686,155
New-Jersey	10	290	40	7,445,000
Pennsylvania	51	1,323	535	49,662,918
Delaware	1	16	—	600,000
Maryland	3	355	172	14,220,503
Virginia	16	485	735	8,930,431
North Carolina	3	249	223	4,100,000
South Carolina	7	383	403	8,703,678
Georgia	13	804	181	15,100,060

	No. of railways	Miles in operation including branches	Miles in course of construction	Cost
Florida	2	54	—	$250,000
Alabama	7	135	955	1,936,208
Mississippi	4	100	518	1,770,000
Louisiana	7	117	25	1,131,000
Texas	1	—	72	——
Tennessee	7	134	558	2,800,000
Kentucky	6	93	446	1,751,226
Ohio	26	890	1,481	17,066,661
Michigan	4	474	—	8,656,340
Indiana	20	538	1,117	9,690,000
Illinois	14	271	1,606	5,100,000
Missouri	2	—	249	——
Iowa	1	—	180	——
Wisconsin	2	20	236	400,000
Total	337	11,565	11,228	$335,150,848

The press of Europe from time to time expresses a well-founded surprise at the great and rapid progress which rail-roads present in the United States. In 1846–47 an immense revulsion overtook every quarter of the British Islands, in consequence of the vast sums of money centered upon rail-road speculation. But the whole amount of money expended on these works from 1840 to 1850 was £250,000,000 in ten years, a sum which seems to have exhausted the floating means of a country whose boasted wealth is superior to that of any other nation. In the United States in the same time $350,000,000 were expended in rail-roads, without producing any apparent effect upon the money market. This sum was one-fourth the English expenditure, but from the supposed comparative wealth of the two countries its apparent influence upon the floating capital should have been as marked, if other circumstances were the same. So far from this, however, the value of rail-road shares and securities has continued to improve. In fact, the increasing supply and the influence of the rail-roads seem to be to place more money in the market than is absorbed in their construction. The great distinction between American and English roads exists in the abundance of land in the United States, and in the number of emigrants who follow the streams where there are no rail-roads, but the latter where they exist. The cost of rail-roads in the United States is so low as to bear a very small proportion to the wealth developed through their means. If we compare an English agricultural road with a United States agricultural road, we have results nearly thus:

	Population of district.	Length of roads, miles.	Cost.	Cost per mile.	Receipts for Sept., 1852.
Southern Michigan	169,200	245	$4,675,000	20,000	$113,215
Eastern Counties	1,450,270	322	61,500,000	200,000	300,025

Thus the English road, commanding nine times the population, costs ten times as much per mile, and receives but little more than double the income of the American road. The receipts of the English road are $250 per mile per week, and of the American road $114 per mile per week. Why does this United States road give so vast an income in proportion to population and cost as compared with the English road? The reason is to be discovered probably in the moving character of the people, and in the fact that every foot of ground passed over by the American road yields almost without labor an addition to the floating capital of the country, while the English road runs through an old country where the people had fully drawn out the resources of the land before rail-roads were invented, and where (so to speak) sedentary habits have prevailed for a thousand years.

The influence of a rail-road, in promoting travel and stimulating traffic along their lines, is most remarkable. It has frequently been the case that rail-roads have been opposed in certain districts, on the plea that there is little or no travel to support it; and when the great success of any particular work is pointed out, the reply is, that "they are more busy or traveling districts." The great fact is uniformly overlooked that it is facility of communication which causes travel. A people who live on the seaboard are seamen to a greater or less extent, not that they are naturally so, but the facility of navigation prompts the employment. When, therefore, a district is not remarkable for the locomotion of its people, it is because the means of locomotion are scarce or dear. Wherever the means of travel have been introduced, passengers and freight have multiplied wonderfully, following the universal law of increase of traffic, when obstacles, natural or legal, are removed. The great barrier between consumer and producer is the cost of transportation, and this is made up of time and labor employed on it; where both these items are reduced, the amount of the products of industry which the producers can enjoy is increased in the same proportion, because those who step in between them get less.

The following table shows the number of passengers, and the average distances traveled by each, on the oldest roads of Massachusetts, for the years 1846 and 1851:

	1846.					1851.			
	Opened.	Length, miles.	No. Passengers	No. carried one mile.	Average distance.	No. Passengers carried.	No. carried one mile.	Av. dist. each.	Av. div. for 5 years.
Lowell	1835	26	400,856	8,411,457	20.96	569,284	8,968.904	15.74	8 pr ct.
Worcester	1835	45	470,319	12,766,522	27.14	1,100,720	20,236,684	18.38	7¾ "
Fitchburg	1845	51	327,034	6,981,872	18.29	1,261.159	14,204,109	11.26	8½ "
Connecticut Riv.	1846	50	185,190	1,369,800	7.39	263,706	3,676,863	13.94	
Old Colony	1845	37	213,144	3.459,291	16.22	630,589	9,161,762	14.52	3 "
Providence	1835	41	476,615	7,453,177	15.68	611,020	9,261,282	15.15	6¼ "
B. and Maine,	1843	74	460,426	9,474,241	20.57	1,449,631	23.533,081	16.22	7
Exeter	1841	65	786,756	12,574.386	15 98	993,256	10,654,945	10.72	8
Nashua	1838	15	192,272	2,678,513	13.93	223,888	2,686.656	12.	9¼
Western	1841	156	265,664	14,278,181	53.72	479,905	22,582,614	47.06	8
Total,			3,778,296	78.443.440	20.76	7,583,648	124.946,900	16.47	
18 others			284,638	2,807,369	10.	1,927,210	27,969,283		

In this table it will be observed that the Connecticut valley road is the only one on which the distance per passenger was not shortened. The reason is that the road itself was only 37 miles long in 1846. The 18 unentered roads were not sufficiently complete at the first period to afford a comparison.

Inasmuch as time is the chief object in transporting food, a rail-road traveling at the rate of 15 miles per hour, which is the usual rate for freight trains, will in three hours bring produce 45 miles, while a wagon will in the same time have come but 15 miles. Thus the radius of the circle of country which supplies the city is increased three times, but the quantity of land is increased as the square of the radius, that is to say, nine times; an increased speed would easily raise this to 16 times or more. By this means the value of land for agricultural purposes becomes equalized over a much larger surface, while that in the immediate vicinity modifies the rents which would otherwise become enormous at the business centre, and the city population spreads over a large surface. In a commercial city the profits of its commerce and the attending local mechanical arts, must supply its citizens with rent, food and fuel. These aggregate profits are held in check by the competition of rival cities, and the distributive net profits must depend in some measure upon the terms on which the three necessaries mentioned can be procured. In relation to dwellings, it is of importance that they should be within a convenient distance of the places of business, and the convenience of the distance depends upon the time and money consumed in passing from one to the other. The business portion of the city is necessarily crowded within a small space, because mercantile economy of time requires that all the places to which merchants and dealers are called many times each day in the course of their business, should be readily accessible. The exchange, the custom-house, the banks, brokers, shipping, warehouses and other dealers, all require to be within reach, and the country merchants, making up a stock of assorted goods, cannot spend much time in traveling from one source of supply to another. Each and all desire to get through as much business as possible in a day. Therefore time and distance must be economized, and most merchants find it cheaper to pay high rent within the busiest circle, than a lower one at a locality more remote. Where the means of travel between those localities and dwellings are few and costly, the utmost economy of room is practised. Boston, in Massachusetts, enjoys a greater degree of rail-road accommodation than most cities, and its statistics of population indicate their influence in the manner we have pointed out. The state census for the year 1850, gives the population of Boston, and of the seven towns which surround it, within a circle of five miles. The following table shows the comparative increase of the city and those surrounding towns:

	1810.	Increase per cent.	1820.	Per cent.	1830.	Per cent.	1840.	Per cent.	1850.	Per cent.
Boston	33,250	35	43.298	28	61.392	42	93.383	52	138.788	65
7 towns, 5 miles,	15.259	35	18,647	25	25,920	35	37,612	45	68,008	81
16 " 10 "	19,723	30	33,700	68	30.622		40,483	30	54,880	28

In the decade ending with 1840 Boston showed a great increase, and it is remarkable that the relative increase of Boston and the surrounding towns was the same in that period; but in the decade ending with 1850, the pressure upon Boston, and the enhanced facilities for extending dwellings more remote from business localities, and yet accessible in the same time, have produced the vast increase of 81 per cent. in the adjoining towns, which have for the first time exceeded the proportionate increase of Boston, great as that has been. It will be observed that the radius round Boston, within which line the population of the state is situated, is constantly contracting.

The effect of rail-roads is eminently to facilitate this contraction within certain distances, and they are the average which goods and passengers travel upon rail-roads. It is to be regretted that more particular returns are not made of the rail-road traffic in all sections of the country, with the view to ascertain the immense changes which are being wrought upon values and property through their operations. The returns of the Massachusetts roads are the most perfect, and the results drawn from the movement of passengers and goods show not only that the distances which they average are very much smaller than is generally supposed, but are constantly decreasing. Thus, if we take the Massachusetts rail-roads in the aggregate, we find a great and rapid increase in the number of passengers and tons exported, with a continually decreasing average distance, as follows :

TONS OF MERCHANDISE AND NUMBER OF PASSENGERS TRANSPORTED ON THE MASSACHUSETTS RAIL-ROADS, WITH THE NUMBER OF MILES TRAVELED BY EACH.

	Tons carried	Tons carried one mile	Average miles	Passengers carried	No. carried one mile	Average miles per passenger
1846	1,334,944	40,634,074	30.43	4,062,934	84,250,809	20.73
1847	1,769,332	66,187,617	37.46	5,556,576	103,037,484	18.32
1848	1,958,331	67,021,613	34.22	7,336,251	126,371,239	17.22
1849	2,167,754	70,848,225	32.68	8,788,589	144,305,281	16.43
1850	2,219,050	72,523,280	32.68	8,856,656	147,888,327	16.69
1851	2,260,366	70,205,310	31.05	9,510,858	152,916,183	16.07

While the number of passengers entered upon the books has considerably more than doubled, the average distance to which they are transported has diminished one-fifth—viz. : from 20 to 16 miles each. In relation to freight, the same general feature is apparent, but in a less marked degree. The result is varied by the extraordinary circumstances of the year 1847, in which an unusual quantity of farm produce sought the seaboards, by every possible channel, regardless of expense, on its way to Europe, where exorbitant prices remunerated every means of transport. The large proportion of this produce which came from the west over the Western Rail-road, raised the average distance to which freight was transported in that year seven per cent. Since then the average is, like that of passengers, diminishing. It would seem to be the case that the proportion of way-passengers on the Western road is greater than that of way-freights, although both increase in a manner to show the proportion to which business aggregates along the line of a road in comparison with its through business. The following shows the number of miles run, and through and way-passengers transported over the road during the years 1842 and 1851:

	1842.	1852.
Miles	397.295	774,609
Through-passengers	18,570	33,971
Way-passengers	171,866	45,933

Thus, on the other rail-roads of Massachusetts of completed lengths, the distance traveled by each passenger diminished from

20.76 to 16.47 miles, or four miles each. On the Western road the average distance of all passengers is nearly one-third its length. On the others it is less than two per cent. of the aggregate length. This arises from the fact that a larger portion of the western business is through travel; but it seems on that road, as on all, that the local business built up on the line of the road is rapidly reducing the proportion. The goods carried on the Western have diminished ten miles in average distance since 1847; although the whole quantity carried is the same in 1851 as in 1847. These are very remarkable results, and indicate very clearly the rapidity with which cheap and prompt intercourse develops local business—the whole showing a tendency to concentrate at the commercial emporium. Thus a long road on its first construction carries passengers through between its most distant points, but gradually lateral connections are formed—tributary channels find their way from all sections on either side—depots spring up, and, more especially in a new country, constantly increasing amount of freight bears a larger ratio to the whole sum, even although that portion of the business also increases in magnitude. The expenses of the work in the same manner diminish in proportion to its revenue; because, through the accessions of way-travel, the vehicles become more completely loaded—the engines are taxed to an extent nearer their capacities without much increase in expense. The road-bed becoming more settled and firm, requires annually less outlay to rectify those derangements which at first occur by reason of the unequal manner in which the embankments solidify.

The cost of the repairs of the permanent way gradually diminishes for the first few years, until, through the dilapidation of rails by wear, they require to be renewed. The rolling stock probably undergoes each year as much repair as keeps it as good as new, and this one year with another will not much vary. The expenses of a long road are also in proportion much less than a short one, because the same stock and agents which are on duty to run 150 miles, may run double the distances with very little increase of expense, and the increased distance brings in, by way travel, a larger addition to the revenue. Where the number of trains and engines or their speed is increased, a direct addition is made to the expense, and it becomes a matter of nice calculation in a management to decide how many trains shall run on a given track, and at what rates to produce the greatest net profit. Too few trains will not accommodate the public, and too many will damage profits. The gross profits of a company are made up from an aggregate of small profits, and therefore, by judiciously diminishing the profit derived from each single passenger, the total profits from the aggregate traffic may be enhanced.

Under these circumstances have the New-England states illustrated the fact that rail-roads and communities react upon each other with continually increasing benefits. The capital invested in these works has paid large dividends. The property of the state has increased from $299,878,329 in 1840, to $597,936,995 in 1850. The population of the state is, as compared with the number of passengers carried in the cars, as follows:

ACCESS & cost [illegible]

	Population	Passengers	One citizen to passengers	Passage money
1846	826,481	4,062,934	5	$2,018,163
1851	1,060,200	9,510,858	9½	3,525,188

Thus, the proportion of travel to population has doubled in five years, and the amount paid for fares has increased 75 per cent.

If this has been the effect in an old, settled country, one which has a greater number of miles of rail-road to population than any other district of the Union, how much broader is the field of operation in those western and southern states where the value of the most fertile land in the world depends on the facilities with which it can be made available in the thickly settled districts. We have seen, in the case of the Michigan road above mentioned, as compared with an English road, that the monthly receipts do not depend upon the actual number of the population through which the road runs. It is undoubtedly the case, that in a newly-settled country the coarse products would find cheaper transport by water carriage; but experience has settled favorably the question in relation to the ability of rail-roads to carry freight profitably in almost any section, and also, that the manufactories which spring up on every available site along the route, supply certainly increasing quantities of more profitable freight to the road. Sites for saw-mills, grist-mills, tanneries, factories, mines, forges, and every description of natural material and facility for manufacturing purposes, are laid open by the operation of a rail-road, and they all furnish it freight.

The cities of New-York and New-Orleans are soon to be connected by a continuous line of rails through new and sparsely settled countries. During the present winter the connection between New-York and Chicago, 961 miles, will be complete, bringing the two cities within 42 hours of each other; and it may be well here to sketch the leading links in this great chain. From the moment De Witt Clinton's plan of connecting the Erie lake with tide-water was perfected, a strong desire seized the people of all sections of the American continent to prosecute similar works. The "great fact" had been apparent, that natural difficulties of any magnitude might be overcome by the science of the engineer. Hence a universal desire to put that science in requisition. The most ready means that presented themselves were government aid, and all the western states, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio and New-York projected vast schemes of improvements which were to be completed with money borrowed on state credit. Charters on the most liberal scale were granted to almost all applicants, and immense works were undertaken. The financial storm, however, overtook them, and bankrupt states had no recourse but to abandon the half-completed works to their fate. Among these works, perhaps the most important was the Erie Rail-road, stretching 469 miles through the lower tier of counties to Lake Erie. In aid of this the state subscribed $3,000,000, and private individuals $1,500,000. This money was expended, and fifty-four miles of the road only completed, although more or less work was done along the whole line. The company were then unable to pay the interest on the state debt, and total ruin seemed to have over taken it. At about the time that this project was started, Michigan projected a system of internal improvements, embracing 537 miles of rail-road, 231 miles of canal and 321 miles of river navigation. Of these rail-roads, two were to run parallel to each other across her noble peninsula, connecting Lake Erie with Lake Michigan. The most northerly of these was called the Central Rail-road, and was destined to connect Detroit with St. Joseph's. The other was called the Southern, and was to run from Monroe to Lake Michigan. For the construction of these works mainly, the state issued what is called the $5,000,000 loan to the Bank of the United States, which paid the first instalment and failed, leaving the state bankrupt, with its two roads partly built.

The Erie Rail-road struggled for years under mismanagement, with varying fortunes, and finally came to a dead stand in 1844, when there were fifty miles only in operation, which had cost $3,000,000, loaned by the state, $1,498,593 subscribed by stockholders, and $597,072 of debt—making $5,095,665 for 50 miles of road, which yielded a revenue of $122,768 in that year. A new organization of the company was then made, with Horatio Allen, Esq., as president. This board applied to the city for aid, which was declined; books were then opened for private subscription, without success. The number of shares of stock outstanding was then 15,845, and the board called in $5 per share, under penalty of forfeiture, and 4,290 shares were forfeited. Such was the state of affairs, sufficiently discouraging it will be readily admitted. Soon after, a new organization took place, Benjamin Loder, Esq., president. This direction came in like a northwester, and the road immediately began to stretch its length. The state waived its claim for $3,000,000 wasted upon the route. The old stock was cut down 50 per cent., making $3,736,400 surrendered in favor of subscribers to new stock. The result was, its rapid progress to completion, from New-York to Dunkirk, in 1851. In 1852 its position is, as compared with 1842, as follows:

	Miles of track.	Cost.	Income.
1844	50	$5,095,655	$122,768
1852	550	19,000,000	3,500,000

While this matter was progressing in New-York, matters were ripening in Michigan and in Indiana. These states, as we have said, failed. It had possession, however, of the Central road, 146 miles in length, and which had cost $2,238,289, and the Southern road, 68 miles in length, which had cost $1,125,590; cost of both roads $3,363,880; and the state had outstanding its bonds for $5,943,324, which it could not pay. In these circumstances, at the suggestion of Mr. Charles Butler, a bill was passed, the Butler Act, providing for the sale of the roads to private companies in exchange for state bonds. In accordance with this law the Central road was sold to a Boston company for $2,000,000; and another act authorized the sale of the Southern road for $500,000. The company which made the latter purchase did not progress much; they were constrained in 1849 to sell out their rights to new parties, under whose direction the road approached the Indiana state line. The company entered into an arrangement with the Northern Indiana road, which prolongs the Michigan Southern to Laporte, by which these two companies in effect became one, and they jointly leased, from the Buffalo and Mississippi Rail-road corporation, the route from Laporte to the Illinois state line, whence the line is completed to Chicago under the Illinois general rail-road law. This whole line, 246 miles, from Lake Erie to Chicago, was opened July 1, 1852, having cost, up to that time, as above stated, $5,000,000, say $20,000 per mile, in running order. This road was, in some portion of its progress, built for $1,700 per mile, little more expense being necessary than to lay the rails on the rich and fine soil.

The prolongation of this road through Illinois towards New-Orleans to Cairo, is at once the most gigantic undertaking and the most remarkable example of individual enterprise and skill. The Illinois Central Rail-road was one of the works projected by the legislature of that state during its season of "day dreaming," when a state with about 40,000 small farmers for all its occupants authorized the contraction of $12,000,000 debt for the construction of public works through lands which hardly any then living might hope to see settled. The Central road was to run from the confluence of the Ohio with the Mississippi, where the city of Cairo is located, northerly to the southern termination of the Illinois Canal, thence northeasterly to Chicago, and northerly to Galena, on the Mississippi River. On this work $1,100,000 borrowed money was expended, and it was abandoned with the failure of the state. The matter so remained until 1850, when Congress passed an act granting to Illinois, in aid of the construction of this work,—1st. 200 feet wide, throughout its whole length, for right of way. 2d. The right to take all the necessary materials for its structure. 3d. Every alternate section of land designated by even numbers, for six sections in width, on each side of said road, and in case the lands are already occupied, equivalent lots elsewhere may be taken. These lands not to be sold until 50 miles of road are completed.

The subsequent survey and location of the road determined its length at 670 miles, and the quantity of land thus donated at 2,672,800. Certain far-seeing capitalists, basing their views upon the known effect of rail-ways in evolving, so to speak, from the soil far more than the cost of the road itself, immediately proposed to the State of Illinois to take the grant of lands off the hands of the state, and put the work in operation, with a single track, in all respects equal to the Boston and Albany road, by July, 1854. Pursuant to this proposition, the state (Feb. 1851) incorporated Robert Schuyler, Morris Ketchum, Jonathan Sturgis and others, under the name of the "Illinois Central Rail-road," with a capital of $1,000,000, endowing them with a *perpetual* charter, and investing them with all necessary rights and privileges to build the roads, and with the lands and rights granted to the state by the United States, by the act of Sept., 1850; upon the deposit of $200,000, say 20 per cent. of the capital, the governor to deliver to the company a deed in fee-simple of all the lands granted by the United States, and also all the remains of the old road on which the state had expended its $1,100,000. This property to be placed in the hands of Morris Ketchum, Esq., and two others, as trustees, to secure bonds issued by the company and countersigned by the trustees, bearing not higher than 7 per cent. interest per annum, payable semi-annually, and redeemable in 1875. When 50 miles of the road are in operation, the trustees to proceed to sell the lands, and redeem or purchase the bonds with the proceeds; the state to receive from the company annually 7 per cent. on the gross income of the road forever in lieu of taxes. It will be observed that this is a most extraordinary charter, the company standing in the light of a contractor with the state, to build the road on certain conditions, which being fulfilled, the state has scarcely any further control over the company, the United States being the only arbitrator between them; and on the 22d of March, 1851, the company, through its president, Robert Schuyler, Esq., accepted the charter. On the 24th of March, the governor of Illinois executed the deed of lands and property in fee to the company. On the same day the company executed the deed of trust to Morris Ketchum, Esq., of New-York, and two others, of all the property contained in the deed, to secure the 7 per cent. bonds to be issued by the company, viz., one-fourth of the lands to aid in making good any possible deficit in the interest fund, and the balance to redeem the principal.

The execution of this deed of trust completed the organization of the company. They then organize an engineer corps for the location of the route and the survey and occupation of the lands. It will be observed that the grant was equal to 3,840 acres for each mile of road. The main road runs 117 miles directly from Cairo; thence travels through a most magnificent country on the east to Chicago, on the west to Galena; thus forming almost two roads, running longitudinally through the state—making in all 670 miles of road, which would give 2,572,800 acres, apportioned as follows :

	Acres.	Value.
To secure construction, 7 per cent. bonds	2,000,000	$21,400.000
" constitute part of interest fund	250.000	2.700,000
" " a contingent fund	322,800	3,400,000
Total......acres,	2,572,800	$27,500,000

The interest on the construction bonds depends upon the capital of the company, the income of the road and the sales of the land. The bondholder is secured not only by all these lands, but also by the expenditure of his own money for their improvement; that is to say, he holds the lands and the road too, until he is paid.

Thus, if the road costs the same as the Michigan Southern, say $20,000 per mile, the amount will be $13,400,000. If this money is raised upon the bonds, the landholder will have to secure his principal 670 miles of rail-road in operation, running through the most desirable mining, manufacturing and agricultural country in the world, and forming the connecting link between New-Orleans and New-York, the two great commercial centres of the Union. *Besides this* *road* he will hold 2,000,000 acres of the land along its route, the value of which may be estimated from the fact that land which would not sell at the government price of $1.25 per acre, has within a few weeks sold at $7 per acre in anticipation of the influence of the road. At this rate the lands are worth $14,000,000 now, but at the same rate of progression for *all qualities* they are worth $30,000,000. This land with the road itself forms a *perfect security*. There can be none better. The interest of the bonds does not depend for its payment upon either the cash capital of the company or the income of a road which will not be second to any in the country in profit, but it has a separate quantity of land appropriated to meet it, and is beyond contingency. Of these bonds $5,000,000 have been negotiated in London, and 70,000 tons of rails for the work were purchased, half cash and half bonds. This iron has since risen $15.00 per ton in value, which, if the company were to sell, would give them now a profit of over $1,000,000. The 50 miles of road required to give the company the right to sell is nearly ready for the iron, and the whole work is progressing rapidly.

We have been thus particular in the details of these great works, because they form a matter for future reference, and because these roads afford examples of the success of bold, private enterprise where governments had failed. It was an operation that requires a *good name* more than wealth, and well had the associated gentlemen earned that good name. Illinois had fallen into discredit with the moneyed men of the commercial world, and men who could command confidence were requisite. The great value of the fertile fields of Illinois, and the favorable nature of the country for rail-roads, suggested the fact that the lands granted would, if properly managed, more than build the road; and the operation successfully carried out would leave in the hands of the few gentlemen who undertook it, the magnificent property of a rail-road 670 miles long, in full operation, through one of the most thriving countries of the world, *entirely free of cost*, and also of the benefits which the construction of the road brings already to the western country.

As an illustration of the reciprocal benefits derived by the road from the lands, and by the lands from the road, we may state that the public lands would sell in limited quantities only at the government *minimum* price, $1.25; but some gentlemen who recently wished to purchase a tract in a wild region on the Kinkakee River, 60 miles from Chicago, but on the line of the road, were compelled to give $15,000 for 1,000 acres.

During the late land sales of the government in that region, the prices ranged $2 50 to $7 per acre, and were kept down at that rate only by agreement among the buyers not to bid on each other, but to divide purchases. These lands, some of them, had been thirty years in the market without buyers. This activity and rise in government lands has been apparent in a greater degree in private lands. The federal government, as we have seen, granted 2,600,000 acres, which it might in time have sold for $3,300,000; along with an equal quantity which it has reserved, making $6,600,000; but this reserved lot is now selling at $5 average, through the iufluence of the road built with the quantity granted. It will bring at least $15,000,000. The government will thus make $9,000,000 by giving away half, and the private land-holders will make at least $20,000,000. Thus, if the enterprising gentlemen of the company make a splendid fortune, they will still be behind the government and the citizens in profit.

The practical operation upon private lands may be illustrated by several actual sales which have taken place during the present year, under the operation and within the influence of the rail-road, which is already causing the great western navigation to follow its route in a southerly direction, rather than to push west, following the water-course. The following are some sales of land in Illinois:

Lee County—1,800 acres sold at $3 since 1842, by P. S. Wiseman—sold at auction, 1852, at	$7 00
Ogle County—400 acres, offered without takers, at $5, in 1850—sold this year at	12 00
Ogle County—300 acres, Mr. Armstrong bought in 1850 for $2,100—sold this year at	4,000 00
Lee County—280 acres, sold by Mr. Barnes in 1850 for $1,000, re-sold for	2,200 00
Cook County—25 acres, sold in 1845 for $300, re-sold in 1847 for $1,200, and this year for	12,000 00
Ogle County—Buffalo Grove lands, held at $3, have sold at	8 00
Stephenson County—1,200 acres offered in 1849 at $3, sold in May at	6 00
Ogle County—4,000 acres, cost $3½ in 1844, now offered for cash at	9 00

These are but a few items among a great number, and we mention them here as an indication of the activity which, after a slumber of ten years, has overtaken the rich farm lands of Illinois. There are, according to the census, 5,114,041 acres of improved land in Illinois. If these lands were like the former alluded to, held at $3, and have now doubled in value, and become *active* at that value, the property of every individual in the state has doubled by the mere projection of the rail-road. The demand for the lands is *effective*, because the tide of immigration is turned upon these lands, of which 11,449,471 acres still remain unsold, but which, as stated above, at the late land sales of the government, were taken up at a range of $2½ and $7 per acre.

It is mainly by this process that rail-roads universally condense and keep active the population of districts, and what is remarkable, that no matter where a rail-road may be located, the receipts from freights always increase faster than from passengers. Take the following illustration:

	Massachusetts.		South Carolina.		Erie Rail-road.	
	Freights	Passengers	Freights	Passengers	Freights	Passengers
1844	963,863	1,498,026	312,547	176,591	76,046	45,402
1851	2,650,465	3,525,118	664,184	287,341	1,108,138	1,163,535

The tonnage per mile of the Erie Rail-road may be illustrated thus:

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Length of road, miles	53	62	74	224	337	464
Tons carried	45,601	58,431	64,497	90,378	131,312	250,096
Tons per mile	900	910	870	400	400	350

As the road rapidly extended itself, the freight maintained its ratio per mile until completed, when the ratio per mile immediately began to increase. The New-York and Hudson River Road has powerfully operated against the steamboat interest, and everywhere navigation contends at disadvantage with opposing rails. In England, the multiplying of rail-roads has operated in a remarkable degree against the coasting tonnage, and sail vessels have been driven out of the transportation of coal from Newcastle for the supply of London by the rail-roads. There is no doubt but that these works will become the great feature of the age, and the means of carrying migration into the southern states. They may be regarded as the great necessity of New-Orleans, which, of all other cities, requires rapid and prompt communication with distant localities.

ART. IV.—AUSTRALIA.*

GEOGRAPHY, CLIMATE, GEOLOGY, NATURAL HISTORY, COLONIZATION, POPULATION, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, IMPROVEMENTS, GOLD MINES AND PRODUCTS, ETC., ETC.

DISCOVERY.—The Spanish and Portuguese navigators first landed on the shores of this country in the latter part of the 17th century, but their accounts are meagre and imperfect. After this the western shores were explored by the Dutch, who gave to it the name of New Holland. In 1780 the eastern and northern shores were explored by Capt. Cook, who, from some fancied resemblance, named a portion of the eastern shore New South Wales, which appellation one of the colonies still bears.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES.—The region which now is generally known by the title of Australia, though surrounded by water, and separating, in part, the basin of the Pacific from that of the Indian Ocean, is truly continental, in extent reaching from 10° 45′ S. to 38° 45′ S., and from the meridian 112° 20′ E. to 153° 30′ E. of Greenwich. The distance from north to south between its extreme points is about 1,700 miles, and the extreme distance east and west is about 2,400 miles. The area is estimated at 2,690,810 square miles, being more than three-fourths that of the whole of Europe. The sea-coast is 8,000 miles. The coast is indented by numerous bays and harbors, without being penetrated by any large body of water, excepting the vast Gulf of Carpentaria on the north. The eastern coast from Bass Straits to York Peninsula is bordered by a mountain range, which is continued in what Leichart calls a "collar" around the Gulf of Carpentaria. This chain is highest in the south among the Australian Alps, where Mount Kosciusko attains a height of 6,500 feet in 36° 20′ S., and diminishing towards the north to Mount Hinchinbrook, 3,500 feet in 18° 22′ S., and still further diminishing to Pudding-pan Hill, 384 feet high, in the latitude of 11° 19′ S. The southern coast, along the western portion of the great Australian gulf, consists of a low and sandy calcareous formation, without a single water-course for 800 miles; and the northwest coast, between the parallels of 16° and 21°, is composed of sandy beaches, with no indications of high land in the interior. With these two exceptions, the whole of Australia is surrounded by a mountain belt from 2,000 to 6,000 feet high, at a distance of from 50 to 100 miles from the coast. Short rivers from this range to the sea; and on the interior slope, it is supposed rivers flow either into a central basin, or that they are swallowed up by the burning sands of a desert.

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* Porter's Progress British Empire. Martin's Australia, published by Tallis & Co. New-York & London, 1852; Martin's British Colonies, by Tallis & Co.

The coral formation in the sea north and east of Australia is of vast extent; one, the Great Barrier Reef, extends about 1,100 geographical miles along the northeastern coast, and at a mean distance of about 30 miles from the shore.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Australia is remarkably salubrious, except the marshes on the northwest. All the explorers bear testimony to the uniform health they enjoyed; and the robustness soon acquired by the residents in the Bush indicates the favorable influence of the climate on health. The south wind is cold, and is invariably indicated by a rise in the barometer. Rain usually commences in the northeast, and gradually the wind changes to the northwest. The sky is, generally speaking, without a cloud, and the brightness of the moon is even distressing; fine print can be easily read by its light.

Dr. Lang speaks thus of the climate:

> "For eight months of the year, from March to November, the climate of New South Wales is delightful. The sky is seldom clouded, and for weeks together the sun looks down in unveiled beauty. Refreshing showers in ordinary seasons are not unfrequent, and it sometimes rains as heavily as within the tropics. It seldom freezes in Sydney, and never snows, but fires are requisite during the day in the winter months, and for a considerable time longer in the mornings and evenings. During summer the heat is rarely oppressive, the thermometer seldom rising higher than 75 deg."

THE MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE OF PORT JACKSON.

Years.	Summer.	Winter.	Difference.
1842	68.390	57.055	11.355
1843	67.987	57.473	10.514
1844	66.731	56.245	10.486

The mean annual temperature at Port Macquarie is 68°, and the fluctuation 27.5, and at Port Phillip the mean annual temperature is 61.3°, and the fluctuation 37.3°.

The quantity of rain which falls at these points on the east coast, for each season, is as follows:

	Summer.	Winter.	Annual Quantity.
Port Macquarie	37.58	25.10	62.68
Port Jackson	24 48	28.00	52.42
Port Phillip	13.25	17.47	30.72

The rain sometimes pours in torrents. A picturesque description of a flood in an Australian river (the Macquarie) is given by Sir J. L. Mitchell, the surveyor-general of New South Wales. The report had been made of the coming of the flood, and the narrator was expecting its arrival. He says: "Towards evening I stationed a man with a gun a little way up the river with orders to fire, on the flood's appearance, that I might have time to run to the part of the channel nearest to our camp, and witness what I had so much wished to see, as well from curiosity as urgent need. The shades of evening came, however, but no flood; and the man on the look-out returned to the camp. Some hours later, and after the moon had risen, a murmuring sound like that of a distant water-fall, mingled with occasional cracks as of breaking timber, drew our attention, and I hastened to the river bank. By very slow degrees the sound grew louder, and at length so audible, as to draw various persons besides from the camp, to the river-side. Still no flood appeared, although its approach was indicated by the occasional rending of trees with a loud noise. Such a phenomenon, in a most serene moonlight night, was quite new to us all. At length the rushing sound of waters and loud cracking of timber announced that the flood was in the next bend. It rushed into our sight, glittering in the moonbeams, a moving cataract, tossing before it ancient trees and snapping them against its banks. It was preceded by a point of meandering water, picking its way like a thing of life, through the deepest parts of the dark, dry and shady bed of what thus again became a flowing river. By my party, situated as we were at that time, beating about the country, and impeded on our journey solely by the almost total absence of water, suffering excessively from thirst and extreme heat, I am convinced the scene never can be forgotten. Here came at once abundance, the product of storms in the far-off mountains that overlooked our homes. My first impulse was to have welcomed this flood on our knees, for the scene was sublime in itself, while the subject—an abundance of water sent to us in the desert—greatly heightened the effect to our eyes. Suffice it to say, I had witnessed nothing of such interest in all my Australian travels."

GEOLOGY, ETC.—Australia appears to have risen from the ocean at a comparatively recent geological era. The sandstone appears to be the most extensive formation. On the east coast the strata of this rock lie in perfectly horizontal layers, having apparently never been disturbed. The mountain ranges, from Bass's Straits as far as 19° south, consist of vast masses of sandstone. The axis of this mountain range is granite, with occasional masses of greenstone, basalt, and other igneous rocks, and it is flanked on both sides by beds of sandstone, limestone and coal. On the northwest coast the red sandstone is again met, topped by a limestone containing corals and recent shells. The coal is principally confined to the east coast. South of Hunter's river, New South Wales, is an extensive field. The seams of coal are seen on the face of the cliffs, and may be traced for nine miles until they suddenly sink below the surface. South of Lake Macquarie the beds of coal again appear. Beds of sandstone and clay slate with vegetable impressions alternate with the coal. Argillaceous iron ore is found imbedded in these rocks. This coal, as analyzed by Count Strzelecki, gives carbon 62.8, bitumen 25.2, earthy matter, 25.2. It burns easily with a reddish flame, swells and agglutinates. It is of a black color, even fracture, foliated structure, soft and brittle, specific gravity 2.31. A seam of 10 feet in thickness has been recently discovered. In the vicinity of Port Phillip, in the Victoria district, several seams, varying in thickness from two inches to four feet, have been traced in alternation with sandstone, a soapy clay, and greystone. The coal strata increase in thickness towards Cape Liptrap, where the presence of extensive beds of this mineral are strongly indicated.

The copper mines occur in the Wellington district. The beds of ore are very rich, forming, previous to the gold discovery, the most important mineral export of the colony. Lead and silver have also been worked in the same vicinity.

The geological features of the country bordering the eastern coast range, before the actual discovery, had induced eminent geologists, especially Sir R. J. Murchison, to express the opinion that gold would probably be found abundantly.

The native animals of Australia of the higher orders are but few. Only 58 species of the mammalia belong as natives to Australia, and of these more than one half belong to the tribes of opossums, kangaroos, and others of the like *marsupial* order. The genera *echidna* and *ornithorhynchus* are bird-like in their structure, and have characterized the anomalous *fauna* of this region, where nature seems to delight in contrasts. Here the eagle and crow are white and the swan is black. The cassowary is found in the greater part of the island, and resembles in its habits and natural affinities the ostrich of Africa. The reptiles of Australia are numerous, and serpents and lizards abound, especially in the tropical regions of the north.

The vegetation of Australia is as peculiar as the animal creation; gigantic gum trees (*eucalypti*) form the most imposing feature of the Australian forest. The beauty and luxuriance of the plants of one district of New South Wales, are indicated by the name of Botany Bay, applied to it by Capt. Cook.

COLONIZATION.—The report of Capt. Cook was so favorable of the eastern shore of Australia, that a colony was projected in 1787, and the experiment of transporting thither its convict population was commenced by the British government. In the spring of the above-mentioned year Capt. Charles Philip sailed, having under his command a small fleet, and carrying 757 convicts, guarded by a small military force. The first settlement was made at Port Jackson, the harbor of Sydney, and thus was planted the germ of a great empire. Within less than half a century from the landing of the convicts, land was sold in the town of Sydney at the rate of £20,000 an acre. Other classes of immigrants were soon allured to the colony by free grants of land, and though the progress was slow for many years, the increase, even before the gold discovery, was sufficiently rapid to awaken the liveliest interest in the rising state. The following returns show the growth of the colony. In 1828 a census of New South Wales was taken, and the following was the result:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Free immigrants	2,846	1,827	4,673
Born in colony	4,473	4,254	8,727
Free by servitude	5,302	1,342	6,644
Pardoned	835	51	886
Convicts	14,155	1,513	15,668
Total	27,611	8,987	36,598

Between 1828 and 1833 there arrived in the colony 6,021 free settlers and 16,792 convicts, and the excess in the number of births beyond deaths, according to registers then not very carefully kept, was in the same five years 1,254.

In 1833 another census was taken, and the numbers found were—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Free, under 12 years old	5,256	4,931	10,187
" above 12 "	17,542	8,521	26,063
Convicts	21,846	2,698	24,544
Total	44,644	16,150	60,794

Another census was taken in March, 1841, and exhibited the following results:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Arrived free	30,745	22,158	52,903
Born in the colony	14,819	14,622	29,441
Free by servitude and pardon	15,760	3,637	19,397
Bond, viz :—			
Holding tickets of leave	5,843	316	6,159
In government employment	6,658	979	7,637
In private assignment	11,343	1,838	13,181
Total	85,168	43,550	128,718

In 1850 New South Wales contained 265,503 inhabitants, and at the commencement of the present year not less than 400,000. The city of Sydney numbers a population of between 70 and 80,000, and the greatest activity prevails in its business affairs. It possesses a magnificent government-house, churches, theatres, and all the marks of wealth and civilization. Paramatta, about 15 miles from Sydney, is connected with that place by a railway, and contains a population of 5,000. The chief towns are Windsor, Maitland, Newcastle, Bathurst and Goulburn. The settlement of Western Australia, or Swan River, was begun in 1829. The number of residents soon reached 850; in 1839 the population was 2,154, and now, probably, less than 5,000. This colony has never flourished, the superior inducements of other portions having drawn off its strength. It is said to be rich in coal and other mineral treasures, and to be well adapted for farming and grazing.

South Australia was founded in 1836 by a company, who obtained a large tract of territory from the government, on condition that the land should in no case be given away, but sold to actual settlers at the uniform price of $5 per acre, and that the funds derived from sales should be expended in providing free passages for laborers, and in public works for the benefit of the colony. South Australia occupies an area of 300,000 square miles, or nearly twenty millions of acres. The Murray River, about 1,500 miles in length, and sometimes called Australian Mississippi, traverses the colony.

The number of settlers who arrived in the colony of South Australia, up to the close of 1840, was:—1836, 941; 1837, 1,279; 1838, 2,598; 1839, 5,197; 1840, 5,025; total, 15,040.

In 1846 the population was 22,000. In 1845 the discovery of the copper mines of this region was made, and, till the gold was discovered, was the cause of a rapid advance in the colony. In 1851 the city of Adelaide, the capital, contained 15,000 inhabitants. The climate of South Australia is peculiarly bland, and pulmonary complaints are almost unknown.

The colony of Port Phillip or Victoria was first settled in 1834, by a few sheep-owners from Van Dieman's Land. In 1836 it was explored by Sir Thomas Mitchell, who was so pleased with its fine soil and climate, that he bestowed on it the name of Australia Felix. It is better watered than any of the other districts, and the dreadful droughts to which they are exposed do not here prevail. The first sale of town lots in Melbourne, the capital, took place in 1837. In 1845 it contained 11,000 inhabitants; in 1851 it contained 23,000, and now the population is nearly 50,000, and increasing at the most rapid rate, the emigration being mainly directed to Melbourne.

The last census, that of 1851, gives the following as the population of the different colonies of Australia:

New South Wales	200,000
Port Phillip or Victoria	70,000
South Australia or Adelaide	70,000
Swan River or Western Australia	10,000
Aborigines	30,000
Total	380,000

Included in the above, the population of the principal cities was given: Melbourne, 25,000; Adelaide, 14,000.

AGRICULTURE.—The different districts vary greatly in their character; some are suited for grazing, in others the yield to the plow is enormous, while the arid regions of the interior are a perfect desert. The productions have a large range, from the tropical climate of the north to the mildly temperate of the southern coast. One fact is, however, notable—that within a half century Australia should have become the greatest wool-exporting country in the world. Dr. Leichardt, one of the recent explorers, says, "That the greatest part of the country is fit for pastoral purposes, excepting only the scrubs of the east coast, the mountain gorges of the Upper Lynd and the tea-tree scrubs of the west coast of the Gulf of Carpentaria." Along the northern coast every variety of tropical fruit will grow wherever sufficient moisture exists; the cotton, indigo, cocoanut, the banana, the arrow-root, the bread-fruit tree, the pineapple, the mango and the mangostine, flourish in the vicinity of Port Essington.

The following table exhibits the amount of land granted and in cultivation in the colony of New South Wales:

Year.	Granted. Acres.	Cleared or Pastured. Acres.	Cultivated. Acres.
1810	95,637	81,937	13,700
1820	381,466	349,195	32,271
1825	673,699	127,878	45,514
1828	2,906,346	231,578	71,523
1833	4,014,117	—	—
1848	5,500,000	—	163,669

The crops and produce of the cereals, potatoes, tobacco, hay, &c., in both New South Wales and Port Phillip, are shown in the following:

PRODUCE.

Year	Wheat Bushels	Maize Bushels	Barley Bushels	Oats Bushels	Rye Bushels	Millet Bushels	Potatoes Tons	Tobacco Cwts.	Hay Tons
1837	692,620	632,155	51,447	17,119	6,753	695	2,102	2,034	5,627
1838	469,140	556,268	32,103	13,416	4,878	353	3,496	4,952	6,968
1839	805,140	525,507	66,033	27,788	7,008	283	2,601	2,509	25,923
1840	1,116,814	777,947	105,389	66,020	8,863	3,338	11,050	4,300	21,329
1841	832,776	503,803	90,172	62,704	6,507	1,072	11,141	2,642	17,175
1842	854,432	590,134	88,767	84,321	4,451	1,201	12,561	2,014	18,622
1843	1,000,225	719,358	95,658	92,268	5,145	410	16,392	6,098	27,774
1844	1,312,652	575,913	132,612	70,620	4,475	511	22,748	6,382	31,848
1845	1,211,099	499,122	175,407	88,193	4,101	775	19,906	3,985	28,614
1846	1,421,750	870,400	193,835	216,783	2,250	1,929	18,329	2,087	42,754
1847	1,027,802	725,704	87,636	221,731	1,200	798	14,240	725	33,111
1848	1,528,874	262,340	145,219	116,643	2,386	158	14,954	3,059	37,795

The number of acres in vineyards, and their produce, in the year 1848, was:

	Acres.	Wine in gals.	Brandy.
New South Wales	887	97,300	1,163
Port Phillip	108	6,306	100

The great staple of Australian agriculture are the products of the numerous flocks and herds of the eastern and southeastern sections; and the increase in stock of all kinds is beyond a parallel.

The following table indicates such increase:

Years.	Horses.	Horned cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.
1788	7	7	29	No returns.
1810	1,114	11,276	34,550	"
1820	4,014	68,149	119,777	"
1825	6,142	134,519	337,622	"
1828	12,479	262,868	536,391	"
1848	113,895	1,752,852	11,660,819	70,875

Live stock is becoming one of the staple exports, and horses had been recently purchased largely by the East India Company for their cavalry and artillery service, and their southern origin rendered them well adapted to resist the effects of that trying climate.

LIVE STOCK EXPORTED FROM NEW SOUTH WALES AND PORT PHILLIP.

Years	Horses	Asses and Mules	Horned Cattle	Sheep	Hogs	Value
1843	248	2	1,852	77,116	—	£41,915
1844	489	3	3,329	53,318	—	40.394
1845	1,159	—	3,972	33,651	6	53,438
1846	1,021	—	6,052	37,848	4	52,942
1847	466	—	8,034	71,440	—	57,355
1848	1,182	—	16,904	895,211	—	85,184

In the production of wool, Australia bade fair to become one of the leading exporting regions of the earth, and the supplies of that valuable commodity began to be an important item in the vast wool-consuming manufactories of the mother country. Wool has always been considered one of the foundations of English prosperity, and one of her oldest branches of trade, for which many protective statutes were passed, and the excise fostered by her statesmen and monarchs for centuries.

At the end of the 17th century, the value of the wool shorn in England was estimated at £2,000,000. The number of sheep in Great Britain is now estimated at 40 millions, and the annual production of wool at 120,000,000 pounds.

"In 1829, the quantity of foreign wools imported into England was 21,118,976 lbs.; of which 1,838,642 lbs., or about *one-twelfth* part, came from the Australian colonies. The importations for the year 1834, were 45,647,870 lbs., of which the Australian colonies sent 3,558,091 lbs., or less than *one-tenth*. In 1848, the total quantity of wool imported into the United Kingdom was 69,343,477 lbs.; of this Australia furnished 30,034,567 lbs., in the following proportions: New South Wales and Port Phillip, 22,091,481 lbs.; Van Dieman's Land, 4,955,968; South Australia, 2,762,672; Western Australia, 129,295; and New Zealand, 95,151 lbs. The colonies in the Southern Pacific, therefore, contributed nearly *one-half* of the whole wool imported in the year 1848. The proportions of colonial to foreign wool imported for twenty years, between 1826 and 1846, at intervals of five years, is thus shown; the two figures represent so many million lbs. weight; by colonial wool is understood all wool from possessions of the British crown:

Annual Averages of Five Years.	Foreign Wool.	Colonial Wool.	Total Importation.
1826—30	25	2	27
1831—35	34	4	38
1836—40	44	10	54
1841—45	36	22	58
1846	34	30	64
1848	40	29	69

In 1850, the number of sheep was at least 12 millions, yielding annually 25,000,000 pounds of wool. The increase between '43 and '48 was cent. per cent., five millions in four years, notwithstanding the prodigious numbers slaughtered for their tallow. It is reasonable to believe that the number of sheep in 1855 will reach 25 millions, and their annual product 50 millions of pounds of wool.

In 1841 and '42, a very considerable commercial depression existed in Australia, the result of large importations and a variety of causes, and sheep, the staple of the colony, fell from ten shillings to sixpence or a shilling each, and even at that price were only received in the way of barter. This state of things led to the establishment of boiling-down or melting houses, for the purpose of procuring the tallow, &c., from the carcasses.

Number of Boiling-down Establishments, Cattle, Sheep, ., slaughtered, and Tallow and Lard produced.

No. of	Sydney, within the settled Dis.	Sydney, without the settled Dis.	Port Phillip District.	Total.
Establishments	41	14	7	62
Sheep	141,573	24,128	120,691	286,392
Horned Cattle	27,682	5,415	5,545	38,642
Tallow, cwts.	49,311	11,530	27,725	88,567
Hogs	23	33	2	58
Lard, cwts.	875	990	200	2,065

The exports of tallow, &c., for six years, has been as follows:

Year	Quantity Cwt.	Value
1843	5,680	£9,639
1844	56,609	83,511
1845	71,995	102,746
1846	20,357	28,107
1847	69,690	108,186
1848	98,213	140,579

The butter and cheese of Australia are particularly fine, and the following tables show the increase in the exports of these articles:

	IMPORTED.		EXPORTED.	
Year	Quantity, lbs.	Value	Quantity, lbs.	Value
1843	248,170	£9,497	81,173	£3,488
1844	60,704	1,184	188,174	3,717
1845	22,216	579	172,368	4,313
1846	45,456	1,062	100,287	3,665
1847	10,164	413	253,880	5,977
1848	15,456	417	216,130	4,116

The exports of lumber have been:

Year	Quantity of Cedar	Gum, Pine and other Timber.	Tree-nails and Spikes.	Value
1843	944,121 sup. feet	10,020 feet 30 logs	155,294	£9,813
1844	1,222,533 sup. feet 214 pieces. 24 logs.	99,500 feet 33 logs	105,428	8,685
1845	781,415 sup. feet	73,300 feet 241 logs	105,908	8,074
1846	956,515 "	390 006 feet	113.972	7,851
1847	953,995 "	46,850 feet	165,648	7,333
1848	863,507 "	22,150 feet 20 pieces 7,600 shn'gs.	76,201	5,675

EXPORTS OF AUSTRALIA.

	1839		1848		1850	
	Wool	Total	Wool	Total	Wool	Total
New-South Wales	£442,504	£948,776	£1,240,144	£1,830,868	£1,614,241	£2,399,589
Van Dieman's Land	194,647	875,165	195,143	490,281	451,203	1,172,330
South Australia	8,740	16,039	91,582	504,068	131,730	570,816
Western "	2,278	......	9,660	......	15,482	22,134

IMPORTS OF AUSTRALIA.

	1839	1848	1850
New-South Wales	£2,236,371	£1,556,550	£2,078,338
Van Dieman's Land	746,887	594,154	285,572
South Australia	346,649	382,327	51,351
Western "	5,448	29,596	1,232,272

The above tables present a view of the agricultural prospects of the infant empire, and we cannot but be struck by the immense and rapid production of animal life they display. Great changes must take place, and the sheep-walk yield by degrees to the plow; but we cannot but conclude that this prominence will exist for many years, and that the soil and climate of Australia are adapted to grazing and pasturing in an eminent degree.

The agricultural productions of the colonies of South Australia and Western Australia are similar to those of the more flourishing settlements on the eastern and southeastern coast. The quantity of wool shipped from South Australia in 1845, was 1,078,559 lbs.; in 1846, 1,473,186; 1847, 1,804,918; 1848, 2,329,134; the value of the yearly export is about £120,000, and tallow, wheat flour, maize and oats, are becoming articles of export, and in 1848, £40,000 were shipped of breadstuffs. The wheat is of excellent quality; one shipment lately received in England weighing from 63 to 65 pounds to the bushel. The entire value of the exports of the colony for 1848, was £354,907.

MANUFACTURES.—As might be expected, manufactures are yet in their infancy, and the only establishments are in the two provinces of New South Wales and Port Phillip or Victoria, and are chiefly connected with the preparation of the great agricultural staples. The number and nature of these manufactories are contained below:

	Sydney.	Port Phillip.	South Australia
Grinding and dressing grain	157	18	25
Distilleries and rectifying, &c.	4	..	..
Breweries	12	9	14
Sugar refining	2	..	..
Soap	15	3	5
Tobacco and snuff	4	..	1
Woolen cloth	6	..	1
Hat	4	..	..
Rope	4	..	..
Tanneries	33	7	7
Salt	2	..	..
Starch	1	..	..
Blacking	2	..	..
Patent Oatmeal, &c.	1	..	..
Salting establishments	1	1	..
Meat preserving	3	..	..
Potteries	7	..	..
Glass work	..	1	..
Smelting copper	1	..	2
Iron and brass foundries	11	2	2
Patent slip for ships	1	..	..
Steam vessels	17	..	..
Fire engines	3	..	..
Coach manufactories	..	..	4
Machine manufactories	..	..	4

In 1847, 18,484 yards of cloth, 156,604 yards of tweeds, 424 blankets, were made at the woolen manufactories. The soap factories turned out, in 1848, 24,180 cwt. of that article; 1,000 cwt. of tobacco is annually manufactured; and in 1848, 26,000 cwt. of sugar was refined.

COMMERCE.—The increase in the trade and shipping of the colonies of Australia has kept pace with that of the population.

IMPORTS INTO NEW SOUTH WALES AND PORT PHILLIP, 1828 TO 1848.

Years.	From Great Britain	From British Colonies.	From South Sea Islands.	From Fisheries	From United States.	From other Foreign States.	Total.
1828	£399,892	£125,862	—	£44,246	—	—	£570,000
1829	423,463	135,486	—	42,055	—	—	601,004
1830	268,935	60,356	—	91,189	—	—	420,480
1831	241,989	68,804	—	179,359	—	—	490,152
1832	409,344	47,895	—	147,381	—	—	604,620
1833	434,290	61,662	—	218,090	—	—	713,972
1834	669,663	124,570	—	197,757	—	—	991,990
1835	707,183	144,824	£1,420	177,365	£13,902	£70,161	1,114,805
1836	794,422	220,254	1,972	135,730	22,739	62,289	1,237,406
1837	807,264	300,313	1,764	80,441	9,777	97,932	1,297,491
1838	1,102,127	309,918	5,548	71,506	8,066	82,112	1,579,277
1839	1,251,969	576,537	3,863	186,212	23,093	194,697	2,236,371
1840	2,200,305	431,146	1,348	104,895	24,164	252,331	3,014,189
1841	1,837,369	332,296	24,361	97,809	35,289	200,871	2,527,988
1842	854,774	298,201	10,020	64,999	20,117	206,948	1,455,059
1843	1,034,942	227,029	22,387	42,579	12,041	211,566	1,550,544
1844	643,419	153,923	10,624	32,507	17,187	73,600	931,260
1845	777,112	237,759	40,048	43,503	7,416	128,016	1,233,854
1846	1,119,301	262,943	21,799	56,461	4,459	165,559	1,630,522
1847	1,347,241	388,724	6,919	41,557	1,550	196,032	1,982,023
1848	1,084,054	263,787	2,642	73,715	2,065	130,287	1,556,550

EXPORTS FROM NEW SOUTH WALES AND PORT PHILLIP, 1828 TO 1848.

Year	To Great Britain	To British Colonies	To South Sea Islands	To Fisheries	To United States	To other Foreign States	Total
1828	£84,008	£4,845	—	£6,708	—	—	£90,050
1829	146,283	12,692	—	15,821	—	—	161,716
1830	120,559	15,597	—	—	—	—	141,461
1831	211,138	60,354	—	16,949	—	—	324,168
1832	252,106	63,934	—	19,545	—	—	384,344
1833	269,508	67,344	—	—	—	—	394,801
1834	400,738	128,211	—	28,729	—	—	567,640
1835	496,345	83,108	£2,696	39,882	£18,594	£3,011	682,193
1836	513,976	136,596	9,628	30,180	13,697	2,625	748,624
1837	518,951	157,975	485	54,434	10,617	17,592	760,864
1838	583,154	160,640	7,137	33,988	11,324	6,525	802,768
1839	597,100	289,857	1,347	34,729	18,568	7,175	948,776
1840	792,494	520,210	6,621	27,864	27,885	24,618	1,399,692
1841	706,336	238,948	13,144	18,417	4,837	41,715	1,023,397
1842	685,705	298,023	3,005	22,862	17,101	40,715	1,067,411
1843	825,885	285,756	17,934	18,827	—	23,918	1,172,320
1844	854,903	236,352	14,106	11,623	—	11,131	1,128,115
1845	1,254,881	276,788	17,656	1,593	—	5,068	1,555,986
1846	1,130,179	328,922	13,441	590	—	8,407	1,481,539
1847	1,503,091	335,137	14,231	—	—	17,587	1,870,046
1848	1,483,224	335,887	6,944	—	—	4,313	1,830,368

The relative proportion of the shipping engaged in the trade of Sydney, New South Wales, and of Melbourne, Port Phillip, is thus shown by the tonnage entering inwards from Great Britain, the British colonies, and elsewhere, in 1848:

—	From Great Britain.		From British Colonies.				From South Sea Islands.		From Fisheries.		From United States.		From other Foreign States.		Total.	
			New Zealand.		Elsewhere.											
	No	Tons.	No.	Tons	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.
Sydney....	71	34,309	106	23,877	232	45,173	23	2,695	63	17,473	1	406	30	7,753	527	131,686
Port Phillip	48	23,295	10	956	406	42,349	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	1,018	469	67,618
Total	119	57,604	116	24,883	639	87,522	23	2,695	63	17,473	1	406	35	8,771	996	199,300

Of late years the whale and seal fisheries of New South Wales have diminished, though the ports of Australia and those of Van Dieman's land and New Zealand, are favorably situated for carrying on this occupation.

> "The number of ships engaged in the whale fishery in 1848, in connection with New South Wales, was 64 ; viz : 37 foreign ; 3 British ; 24 colonial ; and the produce—sperm oil, 1,274 tuns, value £67.005 ; black oil, 389 tuns, £9,180 ; whalebone, 306 tons, £1,472. Total value, £77,652. At Port Phillip there were four boats engaged, which collected 15½ tuns oil, value £235 ; whalebone, 6 tons, 6 cwt."

The number and tonnage of vessels built and registered in the colonies have been :

	Vessels Built.		Vessels Registered.	
Years.	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
1834	9	376	19	1,852
1835	7	303	21	2,267
1836	9	301	39	4,560
1837	17	760	36	3,602
1838	20	808	41	6,329
1839	12	773	79	10,862
1840	18	1,207	98	12,426
1841	35	2,074	110	11,250
1842	26	1,357	89	9,948
1843	47	1,433	92	7,022
1844	18	519	87	8,087
1845	18	1,042	98	9,376
1846	28	1,032	83	4,895
1847	36	2,284	104	9,428
1848	28	1,561	103	7,584

MINES.—The mineral treasures of Australia are only paralleled by those of the United States in variety and abundance, and the opening of them has begun to shape out a national destiny for the once convict colony.

In 1842, several years after the settlement of South Australia, a fine specimen of green carbonate of copper was found by a lad gathering flowers on one of the plains; soon after a neighbor discovered a protruding mass of clay deeply tinged with the same mineral. The father of the lad, Capt. Bagot, and Mr. Dutton, the second observer, purchased an 80-acre lot of this locality, the present Kapunda mines, at the government price, £80. They have since been offered, and refused £27,000 for their land.

The famous Burra Burra mines are situated on Burra Creek, 85 miles from the city of Adelaide. A gentleman who visited these mines makes the following mention of them :

> "The deposits of iron are greater than those of copper, and it is impossible to describe the appearance of the huge clean masses of which they are composed. They look indeed like immense blocks that had only just passed from the forge. The deposits at the Burra Burra amounted to some thousand tons, and led to the impression that where so great a quantity of surface ore existed but little would be found beneath. In working this gigantic mine it has proved otherwise. I was informed by one of the share-holders that it took three hours and three-quarters to go through the shafts and galleries of the mine. Some of the latter are cut through solid blocks of ore which glitter like gold where the hammer or chisel has struck the rock as you pass with a candle among them."

During the year 1848 over 16,000 tons of ore were raised from this mine, and in fifteen months the dividends of profit amounted to £123,200, one thousand per cent. on the capital invested.

There are about thirty-five mines in South Australia, one-half of which were in active working in 1848; they are all copper except two of lead and copper, five lead and silver lead, and one copper and gold.

The following table presents the exports of these mines:

	Ores in tons.			
	Copper.	Lead.	Emery.	Value.
1843	1	18		£127
1844	277	203		6,436
1845	664	273		13,484
1846	2,691	189		60,314
1847	6,921	60		142,640
1848	10,632	271	68	203,788
1849	16,323	682		320,624

The controlling event in the history of Australia was the discovery of gold. Early in the spring of 1851 Mr. Hargreaves, a returned Californian, struck with the geological resemblance of the country to the gold-bearing regions of California, proceeded to a spot in the Bathurst district, New South Wales. He found the bed of the creek filled with grains and scales of gold. Mr. H. communicated his discovery to the governor of the colony, Sir C. Fitzroy, under whose directions Mr. Hargreaves was again dispatched to the scene of his discovery in company with the colonial geologist, Mr. Stutchbury. The beds of the streams descending from the Blue Mountain range were found to be auriferous. The discovery was soon noised abroad, and in a month's time thousands of miners were engaged in digging at "Ophir," the locality of the discovery, and on the banks of the Turon, a tributary of the Macquarie. The copper region of South Australia was next eagerly searched, but no gold was found. In the colony of Victoria, or Australia Felix, as it has been named, the *prospecters* were more fortunate. Gold was first discovered at the volcanic hill called Buninyong, about fifty miles west of Melbourne; this was in the vicinity of the Ballerat diggings. In October, 1851, seven thousand miners had assembled at this spot. Still richer diggings have been discovered at the base of Mount Alexander, and at Bendigo Creek. From thirty to forty thousand miners have been collected at these localities. The regulations adopted by the authorities, and the rigorous enforcement of a license system, had been found very effective in the preservation of order among the Australian miners.

The gold of Australia is exceedingly pure, and is found occasionally in large masses called "nuggets," a corruption of ingots. Soon after the discovery of gold, such a mass was found by a black shepherd in the bed of a creek in the Turon district. Another weighing over twenty-seven pounds, and called the "King of Nuggets," was found at Forest Creek, Mount Alexander; it contains no quartz, but is a massive lump of a very fine color; it is eleven inches in length and five in breadth at the widest part.

The total quantity of gold exported from Port Phillip, or Victoria, up to the 22d of May last, was 32 tons, 4 cwt., 19 lbs.; and its value, at 60s. an ounce, £2,323,908, or over 11 millions of dollars.

The total amount exported from Sydney, up to the 5th of June, is estimated at £1,464,685, or about 7 millions of dollars.

Probably more than 25 millions of dollars worth of gold had been raised between the 1st of October, 1851, and 1st of June following. The region of auriferous deposits is estimated to contain at least 16,000 square miles.

Here, as in California, the gold constants are talcose or micaceous schists, containing veins of quartz, the matrix of the gold. When quartz-crushing mills are erected on a large scale, hardly any limit can be set to the amounts that may be produced, except the labor and capital expended.

As might have been expected, the tide of emigration sets strongly from the British Islands towards Australia. Over a thousand are embarking each week for the new El Dorado, and the harbors of Melbourne and Sydney are crowded with shipping.

Such are the attractions which are laying the foundations of new seats of commerce and empire on the shores of the Pacific; and the next century, perhaps, or the latter part of this, will find Australia and California the recipients of "the wealth of Ormus and of Ind."

When this great trade shall have begun to be developed, the position of New-Orleans is worth regarding, situated centrally between the valley of the Mississippi and those of the Amazon and Orinoco, and midway between the oceans, and the cities of New-York and San Francisco, it becomes a necessity to provide constructions to touch this Pacific trade, and make herself its distributing fountain for the region extending from the delta of the Mississippi to the estuary of the St. Lawrence. As commerce has now new instruments in the steamship, the rail-road and the telegraph, and assumes more and more a cosmic attitude—when art shall have done all that can be done for all points on the surface, the great throne of commerce will at last be placed where the mightiest rivers converge to the sea; and what are the Thames and the Rhine to the Mississippi and the Amazon? Formerly, the ingrossment of the trade of a country was the utmost stretch of the statesman and economist; the merchant-cities of the future will contend for the trade of the hemispheres. New-Orleans has the most commanding geographic situation in the world; energy alone can make it fully available.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE CURATIVE VIRTUES OF THE SUGAR-HOUSE FOR BRONCHIAL, DYSPEPTIC AND CONSUMPTIVE COMPLAINTS—EFFECTS ON NEGROES, ETC.

This paper is the production of Dr. S. A. Cartwright, of New-Orleans, and was kindly furnished for our pages, together with another very interesting one upon sugar, which must be deferred to next month.

A residence in a sugar-house, during the rolling season, far surpasses any other known means of restoring flesh, strength and health—lost by chronic ailments of the chest, throat or stomach. The rolling season is the harvest, when the canes are cut, the juice expressed and converted into sugar. In Louisiana it commences about the middle of October, and ends at Christmas, but is sometimes protracted into January. Not long after the Venetians, in 1471, discovered the art of making sugar from the cane, it was observed that the laborers, engaged in the process, fattened and became more healthy during the cane harvest. The experience of upwards of three centuries, in making sugar from the cane on this continent, proves that the negroes fatten and become remarkably healthy during the rolling season. The health and fattening properties of that season are not confined to the negro race, as some have erroneously supposed. This is abundantly proved by the experience of the sugar-growers of Mauritius, Bengal, Java, the Straits of Malacca, the Philippine Islands, Australia, and many other places where negro labor is not employed. Leonard Wray, a sugar-planter of British India, of vast experience in the culture and manufacture of cane into sugar, and the author of a standard work published in London in 1848, entitled "The Practical Sugar-planter," says, at page 21, "The fattening qualities are abundantly shown on every sugar estate in the world; however, as this admits of no doubt, I need not dwell on it."

It is, however, only at one season of the year, the rolling season, when the operatives on sugar estates are observed to become fat and healthy, This has been attributed to their eating sugar and drinking cane juice and syrup. Inquiry into the matter, guided by the inductive philosophy to aid the mind in the search for truth, will prove that it is not the season of the year, or the sugar consumed, which fattens the operatives, but something wihtin the walls of the sugar-house. The laborers who are not employed in the sugar-house, I have found, from careful inquiry, do not get fat, and are as liable to disease as those on estates where no sugar is made. All the laborers on a sugar estate are divided into two portions—one to labor in the field and to supply the mill with cane; the other to manufacture the juice, after it arrives in the boiling-house, into sugar and molasses. The field hands are engaged in cutting down the cane and hauling it to the mill. They have the cane stalks, abounding in juice, to eat at will, which those in the house have not. As to the sugar and the condensed syrup, neither class of laborers can get access to it, except by permission. Yet those in the sugar-house fatten, while those in the field do not. All improve more or less when they interchange places and each division takes its turn in the sugar-house. Where the time is equally divided, the laborers who remain longest in the house are the fattest. The whites as well as the blacks, who occupy the sugar-house, during the rolling season, fatten and keep healthy. The overseers and sugar-makers are generally white men, and share equally with the negroes in the benefits derived from occupying the manufactory. White men who are engaged in other avocations on the plantation, although the syrup and cane-juice are always at their command, are not observed to fatten.

Not long since, a creole French woman, from La Fourche Interior, whom I had never heard of, came to the city to consult me. She was very lean in flesh. She said that last year I had given one of her neighbors, who was a mere skeleton, a prescription, which had not only fattened him, but had made him weigh more than he ever did. She wanted the same. On telling me her neighbor's name, I remembered the case of a gentleman, very much reduced in flesh, having pain in the chest, sore throat and bad cough, preceded by *hemorrhage from the lungs*, whom I had advised to take himself to the sugar-house, as soon as the rolling season commenced, and remain in it. He did so, and came out of it weighing more than he ever did. I lately advised a distinguished jurist from New-York to try the same remedy, as soon as the approaching rolling season commences. He looked surprised, and assured me that my advice was only a duplicate copy of that he had already received from Gov. Mouton, a sugar planter and former governor of Louisiana. His excelleney is not a physician by profession, nor did he learn from me or I from him, but we both, no doubt, acquired our knowledge of the great virtues of the sugar-house in bad colds, coughs, sore throats, dyspepsia, diseases of the heart, and consumptive complaints, in the same school—the sugar-makers, planters and overseers being the professors, and the broad field of nature the text-book. But the other day, a planter, the owner of some four or five hundred negroes, applied to me for advice, in the cases of a number of emaciated negroes, chiefly children, to keep them up until the rolling season commenced. On being asked what he intended to do with them then, he replied that he would follow his usual custom of sending all such cases into the sugar-house, where he was very certain they would soon recover their health and get fat. If mere sugar, syrup or molasses would cure such cases, that planter, I know, would have given them enough to swim in, rather than see them sick. On questioning him, however, he attributed great virtues to the clarified juice of the cane, drank *hot in the boiling-house*. I found the same opinion very prevalent in the West Indies, when I visited those islands, several years ago, for a chronic inflammation of my throat. The advice was to visit the sugar-houses frequently, and to go into that department called the boiling house, and drink the hot clarified cane juice. Sure enough, the remedy, as far as I observed the numerous invalids who adopted it, was so speedy and effectual in giving relief, that I wrote home, that bronchitis, incipient phthisis, dyspepsia and chronic diseases of the liver or heart, of blood origin, could be thrown off almost as easily as laying off an overcoat. I partook in the belief, that the hot syrup or cane juice was an essential part of the prescription. Last December, having a very severe and distressing cough, which, for some weeks, had resisted the usual remedies, I went into a sugar-house, drank a glass of hot cane juice, and stood over the kettles, called clarifiers, for some hours, inhaling the vapor arising therefrom. The vapor was most agreeable and soothing to the lungs. The fragrant, saccharine aura seemed to penetrate into the inmost recesses of the obstructed lobules, opening its way into the intercellular passages and air-cells, without exciting cough, but removing the obstructions, the cause of the cough. There I stood over the clarifiers, enveloped, for five hours, in a dense cloud of vapor of an agreeable temperature and an aromatic odor; after which I retired to rest and had a refreshing sleep. In the morning the inhalation of the vapor was again resumed, when I returned home, through a cold, raw, windy atmosphere, some ten miles to the city, almost well, without experiencing any inconvenience from the exposure to the cold—the cough and disagreeable sensations of chilliness, smothering and febrile irritation, having disappeared almost entirely.

Having thus struck the trail of a new induction, I was determined to follow it wherever it led, regardless of preconceived opinions. It led to a sugar-refinery, to ascertain whether the vapors therein were the same as those from the clarifiers of a sugar-house. The refinery is a very extensive one, and stands on the ground where the great battle of the 8th of January was fought, about five miles below this city. The inductive philosophy was in pursuit of a more formidable enemy than was there repulsed. The smell of dead men's bones and the fragrant flowers of spring were not more different, than the vapors of the refinery and those of the sugar-house. Both were saccharine, but the saccharine matter was not the same, or was diffused through the air in combination with substances very different. In the refinery, inferior sour sugar, from frost-bitten or damaged cane, was undergoing the process of purification. The planter, who accompanied me, visited the refinery to dispose of his inferior and uncrystallizable sugar. The vapor was oppressive and disagreeable, while that arising from the clarifiers of the juice of rich ripe cane in the sugar-house was most delightful and soothing. Something, therefore, besides mere saccharine matter is the remedial agent, or all saccharine matter is not the same.

The induction next led to the cane, to ascertain if the juice of all canes be alike in emitting a vapor carrying healing on its wings, when subjected to the process of clarification. It was found that the vapor, from the boiling juice of different canes, differed very essentially; that from badly frost-bitten cane, after a thaw, being almost irrespirable; and that from cane which had taken the second growth from too much heat and moisture, was found to emit a disagreeable odor when heated in the clarifiers. If the cane, after being frost-bitten, be ground and the juice extracted, before a thaw, the vapor arising from the clarifiers of the juice, when heated, could not be told from that which had suffered nothing from the frost.

In order to pursue the induction further, the sciences of botany, organic chemistry and micrography must be called in to clear the way. The latter of these sciences declares that it sees with its glass crystallized sugar deposited on the lining membrane of the cells, where the saccharine matter, like fruit, is deposited. Botany teaches, that each joint of the cane plant has an organ in the shape of a leaf, from three to six feet long, which presides over the sugar-making process of that particular joint. On the perfection of that leaf depends the quantity and quality of the sugar deposited in the cells of that joint. The leaf of any joint, on being stripped off, puts an immediate stop to the plastic organizable sap distributed to that joint, but does not affect the rest. Organic chemistry shows, that the bursting of the cells, from a thaw, intermingles the crystallizable saccharine matter with the nitrogenized principles in the plant, thereby giving rise to a viscous fermentation, and that uncrystallizable sugar is the product. It further shows, that a solution of crystallizable sugar rotates the plane of polarization of polarized light to the right, whereas a solution of the product of fermented cane juice rotates the plane of polarization to the left. No chemical process can ever make good sugar out of it. Yet it can be converted, in the refinery, into *glucose*, or grape sugar, and made to assume a crystalline structure, and moreover to rotate to the right, as in the first instance. It is essentially different, however, from good cane sugar. Alkalies destroy it; because it is united with an acid. But alkalies have no effect upon good cane sugar, although some of them form compounds with it. Strong acids do not act upon glucose or grape sugar, but they speedily destroy good cane sugar. Sugar, made from the uncrystallizable product of fermented cane juice, from beet roots, and the black substance called *goor* in the East Indies, instead of being dignified with the appellation of refined loaf sugar, might more properly be called the tooth-decaying, worm-breeding, scurvy-giving sugar; while that made from the juice of good healthy cane, should be called the tooth-preserving, worm-destroying, anti-scorbutic and nutritious sugar. Certainly, the latter has proved itself to be a good dentrifice, and is known to destroy worms and to cure the scurvy.

It is to the cane juice, from which the latter kind of sugar is made, that the induction leads us to look for the remedial agent existing in the sugar-house, so beneficial in bronchial, dyspeptic and consumptive complaints. A tenuous vapor, of an agreeable aromatic ordor, hovers constantly over the heated juice in the clarifiers. It is demulcent, saccharine, and grateful to the respiratory organs; causing no oppression or feelings of constriction, as other smokes and vapors so often do, but the lungs seem to expand and drink it in with avidity, as the roots of plants inspire the moisture of the earth, impregnated with azotized bodies after a shower. What humus is to vegetable substances, the elements contained in this vapor would seem to be to man.

To follow up the induction, and to ascertain what are the ingredients held in solution in this vapor, chemistry will have to be interrogated. It declares them to consist (besides the sugar and water) of lignin, gluten, green fecula, wax, gum, bi-phospate of lime, and other saline matters. Ten gallons of Louisiana cane juice, sent by Mr. Forestall, of this city, to Dr. Ure, yielded 5½ ounces of saline matters, consisting of the acetate, sulphate and phosphate of potassa, chlorure of potassium, acetate of lime and silica. He examined it with reference to the saline matters alone. One of the saline substances found by Dr. Ure in the unclarified juice, the chlorure of potassium, has been used by Kohler and Christison in phthisis pulmonalis, prosopalgia, &c. Gluten or vegetable albumen, in its various forms of zymome, gliadine, legumin, fibrin, casein and diastase, is also found in the juice. When alkali is added and heat applied, the gluten coagulates and rises to the surface in a thick scum. The green wax, or coloring matter of the juice, contains chlorophyl. The gum is in the form of mucilage. The above-mentioned matters contain within themselves all the elements of fermentation. They are what are called skimmings. In Louisiana they are thrown away, but in the West Indies they are turned to profitable account in making rum. The induction bids us follow them up, to witness their effects in combination out of the body, to give some idea of what the respiration of the same combination of substances, in the form of vapor, could be expected to produce, when applied directly to the lungs. In the West Indies, Jamaica, for instance, the skimmings, precipitates and washings from the boiling-house, are conducted into a reservoir in the distill-house. The alcohol is extracted by distillation. The compound mixture loses nothing but the alcohol. After the alcohol is extracted, it is left to ferment in what is called the dunder-pond. It is then called *dunder*, from *redundar*, a Spanish word, meaning *to contribute*. When clarified, dunder is a light, clear, slightly bitter, aromatic liquid, which is always best when fresh and free from acid. In a mixture of molasses it has the same effect as hops in wort. "Dunder," says Leonard Wray, author of "The Sugar Planter," "is an aromatic substance, which modifies the changes or transformations taking place during fermentation; it increases the density of the liquor, (molasses and water,) preventing violent fermentation, and keeps the liquor comparatively cool in temperature and slow in motion." The vapor from the cane juice of the clarifiers, arises from the identical substances which enter into the composition of dunder, and in addition is mixed with a large proportion of good crystallizable sugar. The drinking of the hot clarified cane juice in the sugar-house, supposed to be so effectual in fattening the laborers and invalids during the rolling season, is shown by the induction to be connected with another circumstance of much more importance than the mere heat of the saccharine fluid imbibed. To get at the hot cane juice, as it runs from the clarifiers, the vapor arising therefrom, containing all the elements of dunder, besides a large quantity of pure saccharine matter, must necessarily be breathed and applied to the whole surface of the bronchial tubes and air-cells of the lungs, from fifteen to twenty times every minute.

The induction we have been pursuing has led us to a polypharmaceutical compound, in the form of vapor, containing all the elements of dunder and sugar, diffused, like a cloud of incense, through the boiling-room, as the efficient agent in giving health and flesh to those who occupy the sugar-house. Experience proves that this compound vapor cures catarrhal, bronchial and some dyspeptic affections. There is also some evidence in its favor as a curative agent in phthisis pulmonalis. Will it be too much to hope, that further experience may discover that it promotes the cicatrization of tuberculous excavations, and heals ulcerations of the mucous surfaces of the tracheal passages? But there is already sufficient evidence to show that it is an antidote to that acrimonious disposition of the humors, so often the cause of phthisis. It also soothes that morbid irritability, the cause of consumption in many constitutions. Andral relates a few cases, in which the absorbents of the lungs were found loaded with tuberculous matter. May not dunder and sugar, in the form of vapor, stimulate the absorbents to remove tubercles? Dr. Turpin, a deservedly-popular French physician, of this city, has collected much evidence in favor of the opinion that tubercles are of animalcular origin. Fresh dunder and good crystallizable sugar are destructive to the inferior orders of the animal creation. Thus, according to Carminati (Opus Therap., Vol. I.) (confirmed by Magendie,) sugar destroys toads and lizards, whether given internally or applied externally. May we not hope that the plant, which Dr. Rush prophesied was then growing somewhere or other in the valley of the Mississippi, of sufficient tonic and nutritive properties to cure consumption, has at length been found? And is not that plant the very same which he and his friend Anthony Benezet were so much afraid would depopulate two continents; one to get land, and the other to get negroes to work it?

Many persons in the South are greatly benefited by a few weeks' residence in the North. There are fully as many North, who would be equally benefited by a residence on the sugar plantations of the South. An interchange of visits between the two would not only serve to promote the health of each, but to diffuse information and to strengthen the friendly and political relations of both.

Mechanics, such as coopers, brick-masons, carpenters, engineers, smiths, and even common laborers, if well recommended for sobriety, industry and morality, could always find employment, at good wages, on sugar estates in the rolling season. Louisiana and the South generally would be a much better climate than the West Indies, or southern Europe, for consumptive patients, if it were not for occasional spells of cold, wet weather. Patients could avoid all bad weather by confining themselves, at such times, to the sugar-house, where the temperature is nearly always the same, night and day, and the dampness of the external atmosphere is excluded by the processes of sugar-making. If a cure were not effected by the expiration of the rolling season, the West Indies could be reached in three or four days. The dry season does not begin there until January, and until then it would not be proper to go. It is a great error to suppose that the cane plant does not arrive at the same perfection in the southern portion of Louisiana and the states in the same latitude as it does in the West Indies. This idea is founded on the circumstance that it does not form seed. The seed never matures sufficiently anywhere to reproduce the plant, either in the West Indies or in Asia. The cane, like the cotton plant, requires, in the latter stages of its growth, a little cold, dry, frosty weather to make it mature and to prevent its taking the second growth, which it is so apt to do in tropical climates from too much heat and moisture. The cold nights and hot days of our October and November are alike beneficial to both plants. Hence in quality and quantity the southern states of our confederacy can excel the whole world in making sugar and cotton; for the simple reason that the soil, climate and seasons are better adapted to the full maturity of the cane and cotton plants than any other extensive region the world over. The difficulty, in Louisiana, with cane, is the want of sufficient laborers in harvest time, known here as the rolling season, to get in and grind the crop in due time; also in the imperfection of the machinery and a want of practical chemists to superintend the sugar-making processes. Sober, moral and industrious white laborers are more respected in the South than in any other land—which is somewhat contrary to the received opinion at the North, drawn from the estimate in which drunken, vicious and worthless laborers are held. No sensible planter would have such on their plantations, to demoralize and corrupt their negroes; but they are sometimes compelled to employ such or none, for some special purposes. Mechanics, artisans, and men of invention and genius, properly recommended, would find no difficulty in gaining admission and employment on sugar estates.

How long the vapor arising from the clarifiers of the cane juice, should be breathed to effect a cure, would depend on the nature of each individual case. A day or two, or a week or two, might be sufficient for some, while the whole season of sixty to ninety days would be required in other cases. The modus operandi of the respired vapor is an interesting question, but would occupy too much room for this paper, already too long, I fear, for the reader's patience; as it would lead into an investigation of the effects of respiration on the assimilating functions under the light afforded by the Willardian or American discovery of the motive powers, which produce the circulation of the fluids. But when the physicians of young America are prepared to throw off the chains of old, non-progressive, dogmatical Europe, and get tired of following in the wake of the destructive march of phthisis, exploring mere effects with the stethoscope, but are ready to face about to grapple with the original cause of the most fatal malady of the master race of men, they may calculate on my feeble aid, if living.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

CUBA TRADE—1846-52.—The condition of Cuba such as to point out to any reasonable person the ecessity for a great and prompt change in the mangement of its affairs. Of late years the department industry in other countries which rival Cuba in er productions, has been such as to make the burdens imposed upon Cuban planters annually more onerous, notwithstanding the increased quantities produced. The following are the quantities of leading articles exported from the island for the last five years:

EXPORTS OF PRODUCE FROM CUBA.

		1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
ugar	boxes	987,742	1,274,811	1,228,718	1,090,884	1,249,663	1,437,056
um	pipes	9,032	19,432	16,339	11,640	11,885	10,168
olasses	hhds	203,597	252,840	228,726	246,570	269,044	400,000
offee	qtls	204,415	233,038	173,534	219,284	130,035	117,032
obacco	"	88,200	98,195	68,756	40,191	79,784	75,791

Almost the sole increase in these productions is in ugar, and the chief market for that production is the United States. The following are the importations nto the United States, compared with the Cuba production, assuming 400 lbs. to the box:

	Cuba product lbs.	Cuba imp't into U. S. lbs.	Cuba export to other countries lbs.
1846	395,096,800	61,624,973	333,471,827
1847	509,924,400	169,274,024	340,650,376
1848	491,487,200	174,979,362	316,507,838
1849	436,353,600	179,754,020	256,599,580
1850	499,845,200	127,767,543	372,077,657
1851	574,822,400	275,327,497	299,494,903
Total yrs	2,907,529,600	988,727,419	1,918,802,181

In 1846 the United States took less than one-fifth f the quantity sent to other countries, and for the ix years averaged about one half as much, but in he year 1851 they took one half the whole quantity, otwithstanding a very large production in the United States, reaching for the present year, 257,138,000 lbs. Cuba in 1851 exported to the United States as much of her chief product as she did to all the rest of the world. It is evident from this fact alone that neither the island nor the Spanish Government can afford to lose such a customer. All that makes Cuba valuable to the court of Madrid is the money that can be extracted from it, and the amount of that money depends upon the quantity of sugar that the United States purchase. Yet the chances are that she will lose that market as she lost the coffee market, by perseverance in a system of taxes, which might have answered a century ago, when Cuba had an entire monopoly, but which are simply insane in the present state of commercial intercourse throughout the world. We may take an actual transaction to illustrate the impossibility of continued intercourse—thus a person ships, say 200 bbls. of flour, costing $5 50, or $1,100, to Cuba, with orders to invest the amount in coffee for return; the accounts will stand thus:

Sale of 200 bbls. flour at $17		$3,400
Charges—		
Duty	$2,020	
Freight	157	
Landing and cooperage	14	
Commission 2½ per cent	44	
		2,235
Proceeds		$1,165
Invested in 100 bags coffee. 16,470 lbs, at $5 per 100 lbs		$823 50
Invested in bags, 5 rials each		62 50
Charges—		$886 00
Export duty, 63⅛ cents per 100 lbs	$104 01⅛	
Brokerage ¼ per cent	4 03⅛	
Marking, weighing and carting	12 04	
Bills lading	1 00	
		122 01
		$1,008 01
Commission 2½ per cent		25 01⅛
Net		$1,033 02⅛

Out of an investment of $1,000 in the United States, the Cuba government gets $2,124 31, or very nearly 200 per cent. taxes. Take now the comparative production of Cuba and Brazil, and the quantity bought of each by the United States.

		1838		1851	
		Product.	Sold to U. States.	Product.	Sold to U. States.
Cuba	lbs	40,261,025	33,051,061	11,703,200	3,099,064
Brazil	"	170,208,800	27,411,986	303,556,960	107,578,257

Thus, Cuba has lost a trade which the Brazils have gained. Coffee has been in all this time free of duty in the United States, and the Cuba sales have perished under the weight of Cuban taxes. In relation to sugar, the diminished duty in the United States under the present tariff, served to open a market for the increased products of the island, at a time when the growth of beet-sugar on the Continent, and the increase of East India sugar, counteracted the diminution in the West India supply cut off through emancipation, &c. The production of sugar now in St. Domingo, the British West Indies, Brazil and United States, is receiving a more regular development, and with it the dependence of Cuba upon the United States for a market will gradually become more marked, and the present commercial system cannot be maintained. The position of the island is in some degree analogous to the manufacturing sections of England—as long as they had the monopoly of supplying the world with manufactures they could afford to tax the producer to any extent, for the benefit of the government, and other classes. As soon, however, as other countries began to rival her manufactures, it became necessary to reduce the cost of manufacture by removing taxes. Cuba is losing her monopoly in tropical produce, and can no longer afford to pay over $30,000,000 per annum for the support of the Spanish throne. On purely economical principles, the continuance of Spanish authority in Cuba much longer is impossible. The cessation or modification of that authority will develop the same state of things as at the north. If Canada and Cuba do not send representatives to Congress, and thus enter politically into the Union, they must, in spite of themselves, enter commercially into the Union by free trade reciprocity.—*U. S. Economist.*

COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.—*From the Statistics and Tables of C. G. Childs, Esq.*—Pennsylvania contains an area of 46,000 square miles, of which upwards of 15,000 square miles, or about one third part of the state, is coal lands, principally lying above or near the water level. England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland combined, according to the best authorities, contain only 11,000 square miles of coal, in an area of 120,000 square miles of territory. This coal in many cases lies from 900 to 1,800 feet below the surface of the ground, and is raised by machinery. In relation to the quantity of iron ore, nearly the same relative proportions exist between Great Britain and Pennsylvania. It will thus be seen that in these articles of the first necessity, and indispensable to a state of civilization, our state possesses three times as much as all Great Britain.

If to the anthracite coal trade of Pennsylvania the bituminous coal mined in the state be added, (believed to exceed 1,300,000 of tons in 1851,) the total quantity would be about 6,300,000 tons, worth at tide water $3 40 per ton, and we have a total of TWENTY MILLIONS OF DOLLARS as the value of our coal trade for the year 1851.

Table showing the Quantity of Anthracite Coal sent to Market annually, from its commencement in 1820 to 1850, inclusive.

Years.	Total Lehigh. Tons.	Schuylkill. Tons.	Little Schuylk'l. Tons.	Total Schuylk'l. Tons.	Lackawanna. Tons.	Pine Grove. Tons.	Lykens' Valley. Tons.	Shamokin. Tons.	Wyoming. Tons.	Total Supply. Tons.
1820	365									365
1821	1,073									1,073
1822	2,441									2,440
1823	5,023									5,823
1824	9,541									9,541
1825	28,396	6,500		6,500						34,896
1826	31,280	16,767		16,767						48,047
1827	32,074	31,360		31,360						63,434
1828	30,232	47,284		47,284						77,516
1829	25,110	79,972		79,972	7,000					112,083
1830	41,750	89,984		89,984	42,700					176,734
1831	40,966	81,854		81,854	54,000					176,820
1832	75,000	195,271	14,000	209,271	84,500					363,871
1833	123,000	216,210	36,761	252,971	111,777					487,748
1834	106,244	191,540	35,152	226,692	43,700					376,636
1835	131,250	302,024	37,494	339,518	98,845	5,500				575,103
1836	146,522	393,975	38,070	432,045	104,500	9,978	5,439			698,484
1837	225,937	491,230	31,922	523,152	115,387	16,726	6,430			887,632
1838	214,211	421,569	12,306	433,875	76,321	16,665	6,005	4,104		746,181
1839	222,042	333,927	8,249	442,176	122,300	19,227	5,372	11,930		833,477
1840	225,591	433,263	19,028	452,291	148,470	19,463	5,302	15,928		867,045
1841	142,807	543,280	41,412	584,692	192,270	15,306	6,176	22,154		964,255
1842	271,913	491,602	26,831	541,504	205,253	31,437	181	10,098	47,346	1,107,732
1843	267,125	647,308	30,005	677,313	227,605	22,879		9,870	57,740	1,262,532
1844	376,363	782,070	58,309	840,379	251,005	27,719		13,087	114,906	1,623,459
1845	430,993	1,008,901	76,122	1,085,023	266,072	31,208		10,135	178,401	2,002,577
1846	522,518	1,150,828	86,155	1,236,983	318,400	55,346		12,646	188,003	2,333,494
1847	643,568	1,467,499	105,345	1,572,844	388,200	61,233		14,904	289,898	2,970,597
1848	680,193	1,490,209	162,625	1,652,834	434,267	56,938	2,000	19,357	237,271	3,082,860
1849	800,987	1,428,156	174,757	1,605,626	454,240	78,299	25,000	19,658	258,080	3,241,890
1850	722,688	1,500,047	211,960	1,712,007	543,886	62,809	35,000	19,921	275,109	3,371,420
1851	989,251	1,868,277	310,307	*2,178,584	788,485	†00,000	53,150	23,989	336,018	‡4,380,476

MOBILE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1851, 1852.

	Exports			Imports		
1851.	Am. vessels.	For. Vessels.	Total.	Dutiable.	Free.	Total.
1st Quarter	$4,197,492	$1,596,480	$5,723,972	$101,632	$23,223	$124,855
2d Quarter	3,510,716	2,217,051	5,727,767	105,024	7,600	112,624
3d Quarter	1,194,197	367,554	1,561,751	75,431	1,800	77,231
4th Quarter	1,104,329	437,546	1,541,876	138,146	168,036	306,182
Total, 1851			$14,555,366			$620,892
1852.						
1st Quarter	$4,346,358	$3,555,969	$7,902,327	$178,721	$5,776	$184,500
2d Quarter	3,745,493	2,637,088	6,382,581	99,890	35,115	135,005
Total, Jan. 1, to Aug. 31, 1852			$14,248,908			$319,505

This shows a very remarkable increase in the business of that port. The exports are of course, mostly, if not altogether cotton, and the details for the year ending August 1st, as follows:

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* By Reading Rail-road to Dec. 27. † Enlarging Union Canal.

‡ Including 20,000 tons from the Dauphin Mine.

COTTON EXPORTS FROM MOBILE FOR THE YEARS ENDING AUGUST 31, 1851-52.

	1852			1852		
	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.	Bales.	Pounde.	Value.
To Great Britain in—						
U. States vessels	129,980	64,975,117	$4,998,308 14	145,357	71,697,340	$7,640,647 39
British "	176,022	87,636,256	6,626,174 51	102,830	50,695,190	5,621,146 45
Bremen "	..	..	..	1,710	839,780	106,726 41
Total to G. Britain	306,002	152,611,383	$11,624,482 65	249,897	123,232,310	$13,368,520 25
France—						
U. States vessels	95,690	49,751,594	$3,921,955 00	44,414	21,907,208	$2,565,249 00
French "	2,063	1,006,216	29,143 33	1,046	518,966	68,111 23
Total to France	97,753	50,757,810	$3,971,098 33	45,460	22,426,174	$2,633,360 23
Spain—						
U. States vessels	102	43,608	$3,561 00	..	..	..
Spanish "	5,469	2,563,052	236,693 65	13,945	6,743,337	876,630 10
Total to Spain	5,571	2,606,660	$240,254 65	13,945	6,743,337	$876,630 10
Russia	2,009	981,434	$84,853 67	1,500	747,070	$82,709 36
Holland	2,635	1,359,733	98,554 53	800	390,326	32,041 97
Belgium	4,182	2,082,092	161,095 17	2,554	1,264,814	164,019 99
Sardinia	8,478	4,183,132	329,951 71	3,896	1,960,621	213,290 79
Sweden	741	362,982	29,268 61	1,230	606,636	59,598 86
Mexico	3,475	1,521,110	116,387 74	2,491	1,244,743	142,571 40
Total to other foreign ports	21,520	10,490,483	$820,111 43	12,471	6,214,210	694,232 37
Grand total	430,846	216,466,336	$16,655,947 06	321,777	158,616,031	$17,572,742 95

In relation to this table the Planters' Prices Current remarks, "The shipments to foreign ports are 130,846 bales, weighing 216,466,336 pounds, and valued at $16,655,947 06. The average weight of the bales is 502 pounds. The cost price per bale averages $38 65, and the average cost per pound is 7⅔ cents. The crop of South Alabama at this estimate, amounts to twenty-one millions of dollars, and the crop of the country, which may be set down at about 3,000,000 bales, will amount to $115,950,000."

Also, after remarking upon local improvements, it says: "In addition to these local evidences of improvement, we have to notice an undertaking to increase the facilities of our commerce, in the establishment of a line of ocean steamers, to run between this city and New-York, the first ship of which has been completed and may be expected to arrive here in a few days; so that, when our great rail-road enterprise, which with giant strides is pushing on to the valley of the Ohio, shall be accomplished, we shall find a concentration of facilities here, that cannot fail to make our little city an emporium worthy the intelligent, industrious and wealthy population, spread over the fertile regions that border our noble rivers, and who look to this place as a market."

The quarterly exports from Mobile as compared with New-Orleans, for six quarters, have been as follows:

	Mobile.			*New-Orleans.*		
1851.	U. S. Vessels.	For. Vessels.	Total.	U. S. Vessels.	For. Vessels.	Total.
1st Quarter	4,197,492	1,596,480	5,723,972	11,431,425	7,692,659	19,124,084
2d Quarter	3,510,716	2,217,051	5,727,767	12,529,388	3,449,907	15,979,295
3d Quarter	1,194,197	367,554	1,561,751	4,058,085	1,302,995	5,361,080
4th Quarter	1,104,329	437,547	1,541,876	8,936,430	969,215	9,905,645
Total, 1851			$14,555,366			$50,370,105
1852.						
st Quarter	4,346,358	2,555,969	7,902,327	8,542,789	7,478,048	16,020,837
2d Quarter	3,745,493	3,637,088	6,382,581	11,931,884	4,856,751	16,788,635
Total			$14,284,908			$32,989,472

This result shows an increased business in favor of Mobile for the first six months of the present year, but the increasing business of New-Orleans, from the vast resources of the Mississippi, raise the figures of her trade, perhaps, beyond the real interest of the city in it; that of Mobile, on the other hand, shows the growing wealth of the rich country watered by her noble rivers, and of which she is the commercial centre.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Our article upon this state was prepared some years ago, and therefore does not show her present wealth and resources. The reader will, however, find under the heads of BOSTON, RAIL-ROADS, UNITED STATES POPULATION, FISHERIES, COMMERCE, etc., a great many additional and later facts of great value. To these we append a few others.

COMMON SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS, 1ST JAN., 1852.

The following valuable statistics are taken from the Fifteenth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, compiled December, 1851:

Number of towns in the Commonwealth, which have made returns	920	
Number of public schools	3,987;	increase, 109
Number of scholars of all ages in all the public schools in summer	179,497;	" 3,153
In winter	199,429;	" 5,026
Average attendance in all the public schools in summer	132,422;	" 3,607
In winter	152,564;	" 2,955

Number of persons under 5 years of age attending public schools	17,757;	decrease, [illegible]
Number over 15 years of age attending public schools	20,996;	increase, 2,[illegible]
Number of persons between 5 and 15 years in the counties	196,536;	" 3,34
Number of teachers in summer and winter—		
Males	2,432;	decrease, 10
Females	6,262;	increase, 24
Number of different persons employed as teachers during the year	6,991;	" [illegible]
Average length of the schools, 7 months and 14 days.		
Average wages paid per month, including value of board, males		$[illegible] 25
Average wages paid per month, including value of board, females		15 25
Amount of money raised by taxes for the support of schools, including only the wages of teachers, board, and fuel	$915,639 53;	increase, $51,171 62
Amount of board and fuel, and money voluntarily contributed for public schools	39,652 07;	" 4,947 76
Amount of money appropriated to schools, as income of local funds		34,372 [illegible]
Aggregate expended on public schools, for wages, fuel, and superintendence	10,212,775 66;	increase, 63,274 33
Amount raised for taxes, for each child between 5 and 15	4 71;	" per child 19
Number of incorporated academies returned		69
Average number of scholars	4,154;	increase, [illegible]
Aggregate paid for tuition		$65,612 65
Number of private schools	785;	decrease, [illegible]
Estimated average number of scholars		16,65[illegible]
Estimated aggregate amount paid for tuition		$266,312 32
Amount expended on public and private schools and academies, exclusive of the cost of repairing and erecting school edifices		1,353,700 63
The law requires each town to raise by tax, at least $1 50 per child, between 5 and 15, as a condition of receiving a share of the income of the State School Fund.		
Number of towns that have raised $1 50, or more, for each child between 5 and 15, according to returns		138
Number of towns that have raised less than $1 50 for each child between 5 and 15, which have made returns		2
Number of towns that have raised twice this sum, ($3) or more, per child between 5 and 15		173
Increase for the year		11

Births, Marriages and Deaths in Massachusetts.—According to a law of this state every city and town is required to make an annual return of the births, marriages and deaths to the Secretary of State.

Births.—"The whole number of births in the commonwealth, between January 1st and December 31st, 1850, was 27,664; in 1849, 25,773; being an increase of 1891, or 7.34 per cent. Of this number, 8,197 were of foreign parentage, against 6,480 in the year preceding; and there were 3,278 whose parentage was not stated, which is an improvement upon the last report, in which 4,235 births were not specified in this particular. It will be observed that a large proportion of the births of foreign parentage occurs in our cities or manufacturing towns. For instance, the whole number of births in Boston was 5,279, of which 3,340 were of foreign parentage; in Lowell, 488 American to 452 foreign; Fall River, 145 American to 164 foreign. Instances of this kind might be multiplied.

Marriages.—"The number of marriages for the year 1850, was 10,345; showing the unprecedented increase of 3,409, or nearly 50 per cent. over the preceding year. This large increase is in part owing to the returns being more full and complete; but it cannot be doubted that the late alteration in the law, concerning marriages, has helped to swell the returns of matrimonial alliances within the state. The number of marriages in Boston in 1849 was 1,187; in 1850, 2,467, being an increase of 1,280, or more than 100 per cent.

Deaths.—"The year 1850 was not marked by the prevalence of any particular disease or classes of diseases, and in this respect contrasts strongly with the preceding year. The number of deaths in 1850 was 3,817 less than in 1849, and this difference is mostly accounted for by the extraordinary prevalence of certain diseases in the latter year.

"It is gratifying to observe that while the births and marriages have increased, the deaths have greatly decreased The whole number of deaths in 1849 was 20,423; in 1850, 16,606; being a decrease of 3,817, or 18.69 per cent.

TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Molasses.—The product of molasses from the last cane crop was, according to the statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, unusually large, in proportion to the yield of sugar, it being estimated at seventy gallons per 1,000 lbs., against fifty gallons the season previous. Thus the whole product is set down at 18,300,000 gallons, against 10,500,000 gallons the season previous. The increased yield is attributed to the immature condition of the cane, the ripening of which was retarded by the late rains. Notwithstanding this very material addition to the supply, however, prices generally have been very well maintained, as will be seen on reference to the annexed table, which exhibits the highest and lowest points in each month, for sales on the levee in barrels:

	Highest		Lowest	
September. cents per gal.	25	a 30	23	a 30
October	23	a 30	20	a 28
November	26	a 27	22½	a 23½
December	22½	a 24½	17	a 21
January	17	a 21	15	a 20½
February	20	a 25	15	a 21
March	15	a 26	14	a 25
April	18	a 27	15	a 26
May	24	a 26½	20	a 28
June	23	a 28	20	a 29
July	18	a 28	15	a 29
August	18	a 26	18	a 28

Tobacco.—Trade of New-Orleans, 1851-2.—At the commencement of the commercial year which has just closed, the stock of tobacco in this port (including all on shipboard not cleared) was 23,871 hhds., of which about 10,000 hhds. were in the hands of factors, the remainder being composed of strips and lugs for forwarding, and of parcels which had changed hands, and were awaiting opportunity for shipment.

The quotations given in our last annual statement were, for *Frosted*, 2½ a 3; *Lugs*, factory, none; Planters' ditto, 3¾ a 5; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 5½ a 6; fair to fine, 6½ a 7; choice and selections, 6¾ a 9 per lb. From the 1st September to the close of December the demand was moderately fair, the arrivals during that time being about 5,000 hhds., while the sales exceeded 10,000 hhds. In prices there was a downward tendency from the middle of October, and on the 31st December our quotations were, for *Frosted*, 2 a 2¾; *Lugs*, factory, none; Planters' ditto, 3 a 4; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 4½ a 5; fair to fine, 5½ a 6; choice and selections, 6½ a 7 cents per lb.

The first hogshead of the *new crop* reached here on the 18th October, and in January some few par-ls of new came to market, and found buyers at tes ¾ a ½ a cent below the closing figures of Dember; but it was not until the middle of March at any considerable arrivals took place. From at time until the end of April the receipts were a pretty liberal scale, and the demand at the me time was fair, and was freely met by factors nerally. In this period buyers gradually obtained me further advantage in prices, and on the 1st ay we quoted, for *Lugs*, factory, 2 a 2½; Planters' tto, 3 a 3¼; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 3¾ a 4¼; ir to fine, 4½ a 5; choice and selections, 5½ a 6 nts per lb. Early in May a number of buyers who ad previously held aloof entered the market, and n active demand sprung up, which continued unpated for some sixty days, the sales in that time aching nearly 30,000 hhds. The consequences of ese exceedingly heavy transactions were that the ock on the market (notwithstanding the unusual tent of the receipts) was reduced to a very modeate quantity, and that prices gradually improved, ntil at the commencement of July our figures were dvanced to the following range; *Lugs*, factory, 2¼ 3¼; Planters' 3½ a 4; *Leaf*, inferior to common, ¼ a 4¾; fair to fine, 5 a 5¼; choice and selections, a 7 cents per lb. At about these rates some 6,000 hds. changed hands during July, the demand being ir, though not animated, and the stock on sale beg too limited to admit of any very extensive operaons. During the past month the inquiry has been ore brisk, and the sales reported embrace some ,500 hhds., including some parcels which had preiously changed hands, and were re-sold. Under e influence of this improved demand prices have gain taken a start upward within the past three eeks, and we now quote, for *Lugs*, factory, 3 a 3¾; lanters' ditto, 3½ a 4½; *Leaf*, inferior to common, ¾ a 5¼; fair to fine, 5½ a 6; choice and selections, ¼ a 7½ cents per lb. We close our tables with a tock in port of 18,631 hhds., though the quantity mmediately on sale is estimated not to exceed 4,000 hds. It may be proper to remark, however, that n addition to this amount there are probably 6,000 o 8,000 hhds. held in second hand, which may, in ertain contingencies, be again placed upon the maret. The total receipts at this port since 1st September, as shown by our tables, are 89,675 hhds., hich amount includes 11,740 hhds. strips and 2,118 hds. stems. The quantity inspected since 1st eptember is 64,645 hhds., of which 5,615 hhds. ere Mason county.

Early in the season it was very generally known hat the crop would certainly be a large one, and in iew of the experience of previous years as to the ffect of a heavy accumulation of stock upon our arket, a majority, both of shippers in the country nd of factors here, were in favor of speedy sales. his course has been generally pursued, and its adantages have been fully made manifest. The extent f our receipts (which would have been several housand hogsheads greater but for the low stage of ater in the rivers above for several weeks past) hows that the estimates of the crop were about orrect. Its quality, however, was probably overstimated, as the reports received from the interior ast fall led to the expectation of something unsually fine, whereas the receipts from most secions have been decidedly below the average quality f former years. And here again we take the liberty o call the attention of planters to the necessity, f they would protect their own interest, and he interest of the trade generally, of bestowing ore care upon the *handling*, *sorting* and *prizing* of heir crops. Their negligence in these particulars as been matter of serious complaint for some years ast.

With regard to the growing crop, we have briefly o remark that the accounts received thus far have een of a decidedly discouraging character. Comlaints of scarcity of plants, of want of proper seaons for planting, and of long continued drought ince the planting was made, have been very geneal, and we hear of no section of the tobacco growing egion (unless it may be Missouri) in which anything ke an average crop is expected. It is quite too early, however, to determine what the extent of the crop is likely to be, and at a later period we may take occasion again to advert to its prospects.

WESTERN PRODUCE.—TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.—In this department of our trade there is embraced a vast variety of products, which contribute largely to the value of our commerce with the interior, but our limited space will only permit us to review briefly the course of the market in a few of the most prominent articles. There has been some increase in the supply of breadstuffs, as compared with last year, and the average of prices has been lower. The receipts of flour are 927,212 barrels, against 941,106 last year, and of Indian corn they are equal to 3,750,000 bushels, against 3,300,000 bushels last year. Of wheat the supply has been light, and the receipts, which have been mostly to go forward to Alabama, Georgia, &c., have only reached 130,000 bushels, against 180,000 bushels last year. The few sales that have taken place have been at the extreme range of 65 a 85 cents, though mostly at about 70 cents per bushel. Of corn meal there has been received only 2,514 barrels, against 3,662 barrels last year. The total exports of flour since 1st September amount to 544,711 barrels, against 583,418 barrels to same date last year. Of this quantity, 138,569 barrels were shipped to Great Britain, 70,445 to West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of Indian corn, the total exports have been equal to 2,182,000 bushels, against 1,300,000 bushels last year. Of this quantity 382,000 were shipped to Great Britain and Ireland, 122,000 to the West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. The following tables will indicate the course of prices for flour and corn, as they present the highest and lowest points of the market in each month, the range being according to quality.

PRICES OF FLOUR, NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.

	Highest	Lowest
September per bbl.	$3 50 a 5 00	$3 37½ a 4 75
October	3 75 a 5 00	3 40 a 4 50
November	3 55 a 4 75	3 40 a 4 50
December	3 90 a 4 75	3 55 a 4 37½
January	4 00 a 5 50	3 60 a 5 37½
February	4 25 a 5 12½	4 00 a 4 50
March	4 25 a 4 50	3 75 a 4 25
April	3 75 a 4 12½	3 30 a 3 90
May	3 60 a 3 80	3 25 a 3 75
June	3 80 a 4 37½	3 45 a 4 12½
July	3 75 a 4 25	3 50 a 3 87½
August	3 75 a 5 00	3 50 a 3 87½

PRICES OF CORN IN SACKS, NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.

	Highest	Lowest
September.....cents per bushel	35 a 56	32 a 55
October	40 a 58	33 a 42
November	48 a 52	33 a 42
December	50 a 56	41 a 46
January	54 a 57	44 a 47
February	51 a 54	46 a 50
March	50 a 54	42 a 46
April	48 a 50	42 a 46
May	47 a 53	40 a 47
June	48 a 53	45 a 52
July	50 a 62	48 a 52
August	52 a 60	48 a 51

The annexed table shows the exports of breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland since 1st September, compared with the same period last year.

	1851-2.	1850-51.
Flour.....barrels	1,359,882	1,379,643
Corn meal	1,750	5,553
Wheat.....bushels	1,520,307	1,286,630
Corn	1,547,383	2,197,253

With respect to the supply of breadstuffs for the coming year, it is likely to be most ample; for it is understood that the yield throughout the country has been more generally abundant than in any previous year, at least for a long period. Even in the Southern States, where the grain crops have been almost a total failure for two years in succession, the harvest is ample, and large sections of country, which have depended upon the West for supplies, are likely to have a surplus to send to market. The crops of Europe, also, are generally represented as giving favorable promise, and the probabilities would seem to indicate a lower range of prices than the American farmer has realized for some years past.

The article of pork has presented unusual interest the past season. It was declared that there was a further deficiency in the supply of hogs, as compared with the previous year, while it was evident that the consumption was rapidly on the increase, as the increase of population was large and constant, besides which the failure of the corn crops at the South had involved at the same time the failure of the usual home supply of pork, and on these considerations the market for hogs opened in the West at what appeared, to some at least, to be high prices. The sequel, however, has sustained the views of the purchasers, though we doubt whether any one anticipated so high a range of prices as the market has attained within the past few months, a range that has scarcely been approached since 1836. In beef there has been some increase of supply, but prices, nevertheless, have ranged considerably higher than last year. The following tables show the highest and lowest points of the market in each month.

PRICES OF PORK AT NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.

	Mess.		Prime.	
	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.
September	$16 50 a 17 00	$16 00 a 16 50	$15 00 a 16 00	$15 00 a 15 50
October	15 25 a 16 00	14 00 a 14 50	14 50 a ..	13 00 a .
November	14 75 a 15 00	13 50 a 14 25	13 50 a ..	13 00 a .
December	14 50 a 15 00	12 50 a 13 50	12 00 a 12 75	10 75 a 11 50
January	15 00 a 15 50	12 75 a 13 75	13 50 a ..	12 00 a 12 75
February	15 50 a 15 75	14 87½ a 15 25	13 50 a ..	13 25 a ..
March	16 50 a 17 00	15 00 a 15 50	14 00 a ..	13 25 a ..
April	17 75 a 18 00	16 50 a 16 75	15 00 a ..	13 50 a 13 75
May	17 25 a 17 62½	16 75 a 17 00	15 00 a 15 50	14 50 a ..
June	20 00 a 21 00	17 00 a 17 50	18 00 a ..	15 00 a 15 50
July	20 00 a 21 00	19 75 a 20 50	18 00 a ..	18 00 a .
August	21 50 a 22 50	21 00 a 22 00	18 25 a ..	18 25 a ..

PRICES OF BEEF.

	Mess.		Prime.	
	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.
September	$14 50 a 15 00	$14 50 a 15 00	$11 50 a 12 50	$10 50 a 11 00
October	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 15 00	11 50 a 12 50	11 50 a 12 50
November	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 14 50	11 00 a 12 00	11 00 a 12 00
December	12 00 a 13 00	11 00 a 12 00	9 50 a 10 00	7 00 a 7 75
January	11 00 a 12 00	11 00 a 11 50	7 50 a 8 00	7 50 a 7 75
February	11 00 a 12 00	11 00 a 12 00	7 50 a 8 00	7 50 a 7 75
March	13 00 a 13 50	12 00 a ..	9 00 a 9 25	7 50 a 8 00
April	13 00 a 13 50	13 00 a 13 50	9 50 a 9 75	9 00 a 9 25
May	13 25 a 14 00	13 00 a 13 50	10 00 a 11 00	9 50 a 9 75
June	14 00 a 14 50	13 25 a 14 00	13 00 a 13 75	10 00 a 11 00
July	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 14 50	13 00 a 13 75	13 00 a 13 50
August	14 50 a 15 00	14 50 a 15 00	13 00 a 13 50	13 00 a 13 50

The receipts of lard have rather exceeded those of last year, but the average of prices has been about the same. The total exports since 1st September (all packages being reduced to kegs) are equal to 792,543 kegs, against 738,956 kegs last year. Of this quantity, 222,524 kegs were exported to foreign ports, against 188,353 kegs last year, Great Britain taking 61,923 kegs, against 41,663 last year. The course of the market will be observed by reference to the annexed table, which shows the highest and lowest points in each month, the lowest figures being for inferior in barrels, and the highest for prime in kegs.

PRICES OF LARD, NEW-ORLEANS, 1851–52.

	Highest	Lowest
September ......cents per lb.	8½ a 12½	8½ a 12
October	8½ a 12	8 a 10½
November	8 a 10½	6½ a 9
December	6½ a 8¾	6½ a 8
January	6½ a 9½	5 a 8¼
February	6 a 9¾	5 a 9½
March	7 a 9¾	6 a 9½
April	7 a 11	6½ a 9¾
May	6½ a 11	6½ a 11
June	8 a 10⅝	7 a 10¾
July	8 a 11½	8 a 8⅝
August	10 a 13	10 a 12

Lead.—The discovery of gold in California has greatly interfered with the production of this article, and our receipts the past year have fallen to 267,564 pigs, which is the lowest amount since 1837. Our largest receipts were 785,000 pigs in 1846-7. The great bulk of the receipts has been forwarded to the Northern cities, the sales in this market scarcely reaching 20,000 pigs for the entire season. The extreme range of prices has been $3 75 per 100 lbs. in October, and $4 70 in June, when it was shipped freight free. The total exports since 1st September are 256,939 pigs, against 320,608 pigs last year.

Hemp.—There has been a further reduction in the supply of this article, the receipts since 1st September being 17,149 bales, against 25,116 bales last year. As in the case of lead, nearly all that is received is sent forward, only occasional parcels being offered for sale in this market, and those generally of an inferior quality. Under these circumstances very few sales have taken place here during the past season, and those mostly of limited parcels, at an extreme range of $85 a $95 per ton for dew-rotted. The exports since 1st September are 15,728 bales, all to Northern ports.

Coffee.—This article has rapidly risen in importance in our market, and may now be said to take the lead among our foreign imports. The first direct cargo from Rio was in 1835, and up to 1840 the imports only amounted to 44,000 bags, while in the same year we received from Cuba, &c., 91,000 bags. The following table, which shows the direct imports from Rio de Janeiro in each year for ten years, will exhibit the rapid increase in this branch of our foreign trade, and will also establish the interesting fact, that this is now the largest market in the world (out of Brazil) for Rio coffee.

1842—Import at New-Orleans	bags	126,210
1843 " "		85,438
1844 " "		161,082
1845 " "		167,669
1846 " "		215,031
1847 " "		205,111
1848 " "		239,371
1849 " "		299,129
1850 " "		226,013
1851 " "		274,690
1852 " "		353,616

The market during the past season has been characterized by more steadiness than we have had occasion to notice for some years previous, but the increased snpply has reduced the average of prices, which have fluctuated between 7 cents in December and January, and 9¾ cents in April, as the highest and lowest points. The following table, which we take from the annual circular of Mr. H. T. Lonsdale, Coffee Broker, shows the monthly sales and average prices for the year ended July 1st, 1852. By this it will be seen that the average price of the season for Rio coffee has been 8 60-100 cents per lb., while the year previous it was 10 18-100 cents.

	Bags	Price
1851—July	20,613	8:55-100
August	6,931	8:94
September	10,973	8:29
October	25,992	7:89
November	47,904	8:24
December	20,473	8:20
1852—January	53,014	7:87
February	52,169	8:60
March	48,337	9:12
April	34,301	9:31
May	39,196	9:22
June	42,278	8:73
	402,191	8:60-100

The above sales include the transactions from importers' and speculators' hands, and exceed the quantity taken for consumption by about 30,000 bags.

The following table shows the imports, stock, etc. :

Estimated stock out of grocers' hands on 1st Sept., 1851, of all kinds		bags, 4,000
Imports direct from—		
Rio de Janeiro	353,616	
Cuba, Laguira, &c	12,525—	366,141
Received Coastwise for sale (estimated)		55,000
Making a supply of		425,141
Total supply last year		353,557
Increase		71,384

In the direct imports from Rio de Janeiro there is an increase, as compared with last year, of 78,926 bags. There is also an increase of 2,156 bags in the imports from Cuba, &c., and of 18,800 bags in the receipts coastwise for sale. The present stock of all kinds, out of grocers' hands, is estimated at 35,000 bags, which would leave 390,141 bags as the quantity taken for the consumption of the West and South, against 379,757 bags last year ; or an increase of 40,384 bags. The quantity of Rio Coffee taken for consumption in the whole United States during the past year is estimated at 845,000 bags, of which nearly one half was furnished through this market, where the aggregate of sales for the year has been over *six millions of dollars*. In a statement published in the Baltimore American, said to be from reliable authority, the total produce of all countries for 1852 is put down at 548,000,000 pounds, while the consumption of Europe and the United States, at the present ratio, is estimated at 640,000,000 pounds, which would be equal to 4,000,000 bags Brazil. The stock on the 1st July was estimated at 125,000,000 lbs. for Europe, and 25,000,000 lbs. for the United States.

Our advices from Rio are to the 3d July. The circulars of 30th June (the close of the crop year) state the total exports to be 1,881,559 bags, against 1,869,967 bags the year previous. Of this quantity our own country has taken 952,498 bags, distributed as follows : New-Orleans 346,262, New-York 260,179, Baltimore 207,792, Philadelphia 81,125, Charleston 25,732, Boston 11,758, Mobile 11,261, Savannah 4,369, California 4,020 bags. The few samples of new crop which had been received proved of very fine quality, and the opinion is expressed that the crop will be fully an average one in quantity.

EXCHANGE.—The Exchange market has maintained a good degree of steadiness during the past season, as will be seen by reference to the annexed table, which exhibits the highest and lowest quotations in each month, for sterling, and for bills at sixty days' sight on New-York. These figures are intended to represent the prevailing range of the market, though there have probably been, at most periods, some transactions at rates both above and below them.

	Sterling.		New-York 60 Days.	
Months.	Highest per cent. pm.	Lowest per cent. pm.	Highest per cent. dis.	Lowest per cent. dis.
September	10 a 11	10 a 11	1½ a 2	1¾ a 2½
October	10 a 11	6½ a 8½	2 a 2½	3 a 3¼
November	9 a 10	6½ a 8½	1¼ a 2½	2¾ a 3¼
December	9 a 10¼	8½ a 9¾	1¼ a 2½	2 a 2½
January	8½ a 9¼	8 a 9	2 a 2½	2½ a 3
February	8½ a 9¼	8 a 9	2 a 2¼	2½ a 3
March	8½ a 9½	8½ a 9¼	1¼ a 1¾	2 a 2¼
April	8½ a 9¼	8¼ a 8¾	1 a 1¼	1¼ a 1½
May	8¾ a 9¾	8 a 8½	1½ a 1¾	1¾ a 2
June	9¾ a 10½	9 a 10	1 a 1¼	1¼ a 1¾
July	9¾ a 10½	9½ a 10¼	¾ a 1	1 a 1¼
August	10 a 10¾	9¾ a 10½	¾ a 1	¾ a 1¼

FREIGHTS.—The freight market has presented considerable fluctuations during the past season, though it has generally been characterized by rather more steadiness than we have had occasion to notice for several years past, the extreme range for Cotton to Liverpool being ¼d. to ⅝d. per lb. The following table, which shows the highest and lowest rates in each month, for cotton to Liverpool, will sufficiently indicate the course of the market:

	Highest.	Lowest.
September	⅜d.	⅜d.
October	⅝	7-16
November	½	7-16
December	½	15-32
January	½	7-16
February	5-16	13-32
March	5-16	9-16
April	9-16	⅝
May	¼	9-16
June	¼	⅜
July	¼	⅜
August	5-16	⅜

The total number of arrivals from sea since 1st September, 1851, is 2,351, viz : 807 ships, 213 steamships, 371 barks, 287 brigs, and 673 schooners ; and the entries at the custom-house for the year ended 30th June, 1851, were as follows: whole number of vessels 2,266; tonnage, 910,855. The increase, compared with last year, is 212 vessels and 142,827 tons. Included in the arrivals are 412 foreign vessels, from foreign ports, with a total measurement of 185,386 tons. This is an increase on last year of 80 vessels and 48,388 tons.

COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS.—TONNAGE ENTERED.

3d quarter, July to September, 1851.

	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
American from foreign ports	74	26,187 07
Foreign	30	6,564 47
Coastwise	223	74,347 00
	327	107,098 54

4th quarter, October to December, 1851.

American from foreign ports	170	61,776 86
Foreign	148	70,916 01
Coastwise	386	173,909 15
	704	306,602 07

1st quarter, January to March, 1852.

American from foreign ports	175	82,209 27
Foreign	140	67,039 94
Coastwise	305	110,395 36
	620	259,644 62

2d quarter, April to June, 1852.

American from foreign ports	155	71,946 77
Foreign	95	40,867 08
Coastwise	365	124,695 85
	615	237,509 75

Recapitulation.

Total 3d quarter, 1851	327	107,098 54
4th " "	704	306,602 07
1st " 1852	620	259,644 62
2d " "	615	237,509 75
Total to June, 30th, 1852	2266	910,855 08
Total the year previous	2054	768,028 04
Increase this year	212	142,827,04

TONNAGE CLEARED.

3d quarter, July to September, 1851.

American for foreign ports	105	43,939 13
Foreign	48	16,001 44
Coastwise	187	63,584 07
	340	123,524 64

4th quarter, October to December, 1851.

American for foreign ports	184	96,133 20
Foreign	58	21,414 00
Coastwise	269	94,987 65
	514	212,534 85

1st quarter, January to March, 1852.

American for foreign ports	189	101,406 49
Foreign	173	82,114 83
Coastwise	316	130,282 29
	678	313,803 66

2d quarter, April to June, 1852.

American for foreign ports	240	128,424 54
Foreign	122	56,031 93
Coastwise	308	94,722 84
	670	279,179 41

Recapitulation.

Total 3d quarter, 1851	340	123,524 64
4th " "	514	212,534 85
1st " 1852	678	313,803 66
2d " "	670	279,179 41
Total to June, 30th, 1852	2202	929,042 56
Total the year previous	2197	775,081 63
Increase this year	105	154,960 93

EXPORTS—NEW-ORLEANS, 1851–2.

AMERICAN PRODUCE.

American Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851	$4,058,635
4th " "	8,936,430
1st " 1852	6,542,749
2d " "	11,931,884
	33,469,158

Foreign Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851	$1,302,995
4th " "	969,215
1st " 1852	7,475,048
2d " "	4,856,731
	14,607,029

Coastwise.

3d quarter, 1851	$4,536,530
4th " "	6,162,449
1st " 1852	11,496,214
2d " "	7,068,679
	28,268,372
Total foreign	48,076,187
Coastwise	28,268,372
Grand total	$76,344,569

FOREIGN PRODUCE.

American Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851	$47,332
4th " "	31,805
1st " 1852	60,279
2d " "	66,520
	$205,936

Foreign Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851	$ 3,873
4th " "	8,798
1st " 1852	20,950
2d " "	11,157
	44,780
Grand total	$250,716

RECEIPTS BY THE NEW CANAL, NEW-ORLEANS.

Statement of produce received in the New Basin, for the year ending 31st August, 1852. Furnished by Capt. James Stockton.

Cotton—bales	40,630
Lumber—yellow pine and cypress—feet	30,570,000
Wood—oak, ash and pine—cords	28,208
Bricks	19,329,000
Sand—bbls	194,550
Shells—bbls	27,000
Charcoal—bbls	114,360
Tar—bbls	1,872
——kegs	12,066
Shingles	1,644,000
Laths	5,090,000
Staves	150,000
Sash and doors—pairs	13,900
Spirits turpentine—bbls	2,408
Rosin—bbls	11,715
Salt, sacks	33,763
Cotton Gins	319

Hides....	3,024
Corn Mills....................................	19
Domestics—bales....	1,478
Sheep skins—bales...................	4
Hay—bales......................................	20
Buckets—dozen..........	1,006
Tobacco—leaf—boxes.........................	844
Merchandise—boxes...........................	53
Moss—bales.....................................	30
Cotton seed—bags.............................	14
Wool—bags.......................................	6
Sugar—bbls......................................	870
Molasses—bbls......	893
Fish—bbls.......................................	130
Camphene—bbls.............................	10
Knees, white and live oak.................	1,165
Pickets..	13,000
Clap boards.......................................	165,000
Gunny bags—bales............................	285
Horned Cattle..................................	123
Paper—bundles................................	110
Barrels—empty................................	1,150
Rags—bales.......................................	4
Mahogany—logs..................................	20
Deer Skins—bales..............................	16
Almonds—sacks.................................	35
Bottles, empty—casks........................	17
White oak bark—cords.......................	35
Cedar logs..........	240
Turpentine, raw—bbls.......................	73

STATEMENT OF COTTON, NEW-ORLEANS.

Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1851..........Bales		15390
Arrived since the 27th ultimo.......	2740	
Arrived previously...................	1426443	
Total receipts for 12 months......	1429183	
Add. made from waste and damaged cotton and samples..estimated,	1000	
		1430183
		1445573
Exported since 27th ultimo..........	2716	
Exported previously..................	1431899	
Shipped to western states...........	1200	
Total exports for 12 months..............		1435815
Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1852.........Bales		9758

STATEMENT OF TOBACCO, NEW-ORLEANS.

Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1851.........Hhds		23871
Arrived since the 27th ultimo.......	1252	
Arrived previously.................	88423	
Additional hhds. made from samples, repacking, &c....................	200	
Total receipts for 12 months.............		89875
Exported since 27th ultimo...	1505	113746
Exported previously..........	92210	
Total exports for 12 months........	93715	
City consumption, baling, &c........	1200—94915	
Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1852........Hhds.		18831

COMPARATIVE ARRIVALS, EXPORTS, AND STOCKS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO AT NEW-ORLEANS,

For ten years—from 1st September each year.

	COTTON—BALES			TOBACCO—HHDS		
Years	Arrivals	Exports	Stocks	Arr'ls	Exp'ts	Stocks
1851-52	1429183	1435815	9758	89675	93715	18831
1850-51	995036	997458	15390	64030	54501	23871
1849-50	837723	838591	16612	60304	57955	14842
1848-49	1142382	1167303	15480	52335	52896	13293
1847-48	1213805	1201897	37401	55882	60364	14851
1846-47	740669	724508	23493	55588	50376	22336
1845-46	1053633	1054857	6832	72896	62045	17924
1844-45	979238	984616	7556	71493	68679	7673
1843-44	910854	895375	12934	82435	84249	4859
1842-43	1089642	1088870	4700	92509	89891	4873

COMPARATIVE RATES OF EXCHANGE ON LONDON, PARIS AND NEW-YORK.

On the 1st of each month for three years past--sixty day bills.

	1851-2.			1850-1.			1849-50.		
	London	Paris	New-York	London	Paris	New-York	London	Paris	New-York
	pm	per $	dis	pm	per $	dis	pm	per $	dis
Sept..	10⅜	5 12	2	9¾	5 28	1⅛	8½	5 25	¼
Oct...	10⅜	5 15	2¾	9¼	5 28	1⅝	9¾	5 30	¼
Nov ..	7	5 25	3⅛	7½	5 32	2¾	9½	5 28	1⅛
Dec...	9¾	5 20	2	8	5 30	1⅞	8	5 32	1¾
Jan...	9½	5 20	2¼	7¾	5 28	2⅞	7¼	5 35	1¾
Feb...	8¾	5 25	2⅜	7½	5 30	2⅞	7¾	5 30	1¾
Mar ..	9	5 22	2⅛	7⅛	5 23	2⅝	7¾	5 32	1⅞
April .	9	5 22	1½	10	5 10	⅞	7½	5 35	1⅝
May...	8¾	5 25	1¾	10	5 12	⅜	9¾	5 27	⅜
June..	9½	5 20	1¾	10½	5 10	⅝	9½	5 27	⅞
July. .	10¾	5 20	1	10½	5 08	1⅝	9½	5 27	1⅛
Aug ..	10	5 18	1⅛	9½	5 10	1⅝	9¾	5 29	⅞

MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF FLATBOATS---NEW-ORLEANS

MONTHS.	Ohio.	Kentucky.	Indiana.	Virginia.	Pennsylvania.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Iowa.	Alabama.	Tennessee.	Mississippi.	TOTAL.
Sep.	3	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	9
Oct.	1	..	1	..	4	2	..	..	..	5	..	13
Nov.	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Dec.	34	..	12	..	2	3	..	..	..	1	2	54
Jan..	58	11	43	6	..	3	..	..	..	3	..	124
Feb.	39	11	20	4	5	..	..	..	..	4	..	83
Mar	88	7	77	..	10	3	..	..	..	30	..	215
Apr.	31	9	109	..	14	20	..	1	..	31	11	226
May	90	26	74	..	30	16	..	..	3	11	2	252
June	7	13	11	..	31	4	..	..	..	85	..	150
July	3	8	5	..	87	..	..	..	..	50	..	153
Aug.	2	3	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	29	..	37
Tot.	357	88	358	10	183	51	1	2	3	250	15	1318

Also about 150 from various states with cattle, sheep, hogs, lumber, &c., making a total of 1,468.

COMPARATIVE RATES OF FREIGHT, NEW-ORLEANS.

On Cotton and Tobacco to Liverpool, Havre and New-York, on the first of each month, for the past two years.

	COTTON—PER POUND					
	1851-52			1850-51		
	Livpl	Havre	N. Y.	Livpl.	Havre	N. Y.
Sept..	⅜d	⅞ct	⅜ct	7-16d	⅞ct	¼ct
Oct...	7-16	15-16	⅜	7-16	⅞	¼
Nov. .	⅜	1	⅝	⅜	¾	¼
Dec...	7-16	⅞	⅜	7-16	⅞	⅜
Jan. .	7-16	⅞	⅜	13-32	⅞	⅜
Feb...	7-16	15-16	9-16	9-16	15-16	⅝
March	⅜	⅞	⅝	13-16	1⅛	1
April..	9-16	1⅛	⅜	⅜	¾	⅜
May..	1-16	1⅛	¾	⅜	⅞	⅜
June..	⅜	¾	⅜	⅜	1	⅜
July...	5-16	¾	⅜	⅜	..	⅜
Aug. .	⅜	¾	⅜	7-16	..	⅜

TOBACCO—PER HOGSHEAD

Sept..	35s 0d	$ ..	$4 50	32s 6d	$7 00	$2 50
Oct...	35 0	8 00	4 00	32 6	7 00	2 00
Nov..	37 6	10 00	..	30 0	..	2 00
Dec...	..	8 00	..	..	..	5 00
Jan...	..	8 00	..	35 0	.	5 00
Feb...	40 0	..	..	..	..	7 00
March	..	..	6 00	..	..	9 00
April..	45 0	..	7 00	..	..	5 50
May..	..	..	7 75	..	..	6 00
June..	35 0	7 00	4 00	35 0	..	6 00
July..	30 0	6 75	3 50	35 0	..	4 50
Aug..	30 0	6 75	3 00	35 0	..	4 50

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE, NEW-ORLEANS, DIRECT IMPORTS OF COFFEE, SUGAR AND SALT.

For three years, from September 1 to August 31.

		1851–2	1850–1	49—50
Coffee, Havana	bags	12525	10367	10627
Coffee, Rio	bags	353616	274690	225013
Sugar, Havana	boxes	25673	29293	18843
Salt, Liverpool	sacks	580106	420838	468932
Salt, Turks Island, &c.	bush.	235952	419685	583183

Comparative Prices middling to fair Cottons, Sugar on the Levee, Molasses on the Levee, and Flour at New-Orleans, on the first of each month, from 1st September, 1851, *to 31st August*, 1852.

	Cotton	Sugar	Molasses	Flour
	cents	cents	cents	dollars
September	9 a 10	3¾ a 6½	25 a 30	3⅝ a 5
October	8 a 9¼	3¾ a 6½	23 a 30	3¾ a 4¾
November	7 a 8¼	3 a 6¾	18 a 27	3⅝ a 4⅝
December	7¼ a 8⅝	2½ a 6	23½ a 24	3½ a 4¾
January	7½ a 8½	2 a 5½	17 a 20½	3⅞ a 5½
February	7½ a 8¾	2 a 5½	15 a 20½	4 a 5½
March	7⅞ a 9	2¼ a 5¼	20 a 25	4¼ a 4⅝
April	7⅞ a 9	2¼ a 5¾	15 a 26	3⅝ a 4½
May	7¾ a 9¼	2¼ a 5¾	20 a 28	3¼ a 3¾
June	9¼ a ..	3½ a 6	23 a 28	3¾ a 3⅞
July	9¼ a ..	3¼ a 6	20 a 28	3¾ a 4¼
August	9½ a ..	3¼ a 6¼	18 a 28	3 a 3⅞

IMPORTS OF SPECIE—NEW-ORLEANS.

For five years, from 1st Sep. to 31st Aug.

1851-52	$6,278,523
1850-51	7,937,119
1849-50	3,792,662
1848-9	2,501,250
1847-8	1,845,500

Statement of the Deposits and Coinage at the Branch Mint, New-Orleans, from the 1st of August, 1851, *to the 31st July*, 1852, *inclusive.*

GOLD DEPOSITS.

California gold bullion	$5,821,695 22	
Other gold bullion	139,608 79	
Total gold deposits		$5,961,304 01

SILVER DEPOSITS.

Silver extracted from California gold	$36,568 23	
Other silver bullion	105,777 97	
Total silver deposits		142,346 20
Total value of gold and silver deposits		$6,103,650 21
Last year		9,107,722 39

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces	Value	
Double eagles	228,000	4,560,000	
Eagles	131,500	1,315,000	
Half eagles	8,000	40,000	
Quarter eagles	98,000	245,000	
Gold dollars	210,000	210.000	
	675,500		$6,370,000

SILVER COINAGE.

	Pieces	Value	
Half dollars	264,000	132,000	
Quarter dollars	144,000	36,000	
Dimes	320,000	32,000	
Half dimes	640,000	32,000	
Three-cent pieces	120,000	3,600	
	1,488,000		235,600
Total coinage	2,163,000		$ 6,605,600
Last year	5,625,000		10,044,500

NEW-ORLEANS MORTALITY, 1851-52.

From September 1*st*, 1851, *to August* 28, *inclusive*, 1852.—*From Dr. Axson's New-Orleans Medical Journal.*

Months 1851	Totals	Under ten years	Colored	Zymotics	Nervous system	Respiratory system	Digestive system	Circulatory system	Generative system	Urinatory system	Locomotory system	Integumentory system	Age	External causes	Non-sp'fied	Sporadic
September	572	201	64	181	119	72	63	6	5	0	1	1	3	30	43	48
October	514	162	56	162	102	69	33	10	0	1	1	0	6	32	50	48
November	591	205	90	223	106	84	44	11	3	0	0	0	4	17	56	43
December	509	200	94	143	78	104	33	14	4	0	1	0	7	15	64	46
January, 1852	486	179	111	97	80	123	39	6	5	0	1	1	11	42	51	30
February	477	155	91	106	85	128	38	14	4	0	0	0	8	22	49	23
March	462	190	72	138	67	95	46	6	5	1	0	0	5	27	45	27
April	502	227	99	146	90	99	51	8	2	1	1	0	7	40	32	35
May	627	290	118	209	112	100	68	6	2	2	1	0	7	30	51	38
June	1163	506	144	757	104	74	101	8	4	2	3	1	6	26	41	36
July	769	301	108	339	126	68	61	2	9	3	1	2	2	67	56	33
August	883	305	141	360	143	125	68	6	9	1	7	1	15	48	63	39
Total deaths	7555	2921	1178	2861	1212	1141	645	97	52	11	17	6	81	396	601	446

SPECIAL FORMS OF DISEASE TABULATED.

Months 1851	Fever	Cholera	Dysentery	Trismus Nascentium	Convulsions	Tetanus	Consumption	Still-born
September	114	5	29	23	42	7	50	14
October	71	8	49	18	28	8	49	15
November	73	78	37	29	27	4	60	24
December	50	28	29	9	19	7	56	29
January, 1852	48	2	17	13	20	7	72	27
February	63	0	20	10	27	4	67	24
March	63	1	26	9	17	6	63	24
April	47	6	21	12	34	4	60	14
May	29	63	42	6	49	4	67	26
June	69	550	24	10	55	4	58	19
July	78	173	21	7	38	10	48	24
August	160	101	44	22	51	3	103	30
Totals	865	1024	359	168	407	65	753	263

ANNUAL STATEMENT OF CHARITY HOSPITAL.

Months 1851	Admissions Males	Admissions Females	Discharges Males	Discharges Females	Deaths Males	Deaths Females
September	1701	616	1652	516	109	29
October	1505	470	1359	438	118	25
November	1092	290	1006	322	139	32
December	1150	319	955	272	117	18
January, 1852	1175	343	858	364	115	28
February	1168	404	1052	371	132	33
March	939	323	915	362	113	29
April	699	287	693	282	84	28
May	829	384	703	302	143	60
June	988	422	791	349	142	71
July	1141	387	982	349	100	33
August	1288	507	1163	444	101	26
Total	13675	4752	12129	4431	1413	412

Admissions	Discharges	Deaths
Total number, 18,427	Total, 19,560	Total, 1825.

Of this number admitted there were	natives of the United States	1,754
" "	natives of foreign countries	16,468
" "	places of nativity	195

POSTAGE LAW OF 1852.—This law is a liberal advance upon the previous one.

Small newspapers and periodicals, published monthly or oftener, and pamphlets not containing more than sixteen octavo pages each, when sent in single packages, weighing at least eight ounces, to one address, and pre-paid by affixing postage stamps thereto, shall be charged only half of a cent. for each ounce, or fraction of an ounce, notwithstanding the postage calculated on each separate article of such package would exceed that amount. That books, bound or unbound, not weighing over four pounds, shall be deemed mailable matter, and shall be chargeable with postage at one cent an ounce for all distances under three thousand miles, and two cents an ounce for all distances over three thousand miles, to which fifty per cent. shall be added in all cases where the same may be sent without being pre-paid, and all printed matter chargeable by weight shall be weighed when dry.

Quarterly rates of postage when paid in advance, on Newspapers and Periodicals sent from the office of publication to actual subscribers, from and after the 30th of September, 1852.

	Daily	Tri-weekly	Weekly	Monthly
Weekly newspapers (one copy only) sent to actual subscribers within the county where printed and published	—	—	free	
Newspapers and periodicals not exceeding 1½ oz. in weight, when circulated in the state where published	22¾	9¾	3¼	¾
Newspapers and periodicals of the weight of 3 oz. and under, sent to any part of the United States	45½	19½	6½	1½
Over 3 and not over 4 oz.	91	39	13	3
Over 4 and not over 5 oz.	$1·36½	58½	19½	4½
Over 5 and not over 6 oz.	1·82	78	26	6
Over 6 and not over 7 oz.	2·27½	97½	32½	7½
Over 7 and not over 8 oz.	2·73	1·17	39	9

DIRECTIONS.

1st. When the weight of any publication exceeds eight ounces, the same progressive rate of postage, laid down in the above table, must be charged.

2d. Publishers of newspapers and periodicals may send to each other from their respective offices of publication, free of postage, one copy of each publication; and may also send to each actual subscriber, inclosed in their publications, bills and receipts for the same free of postage.

3d. Postmasters are not entitled to receive newspapers free of postage under their franking privilege.

4th. If the publisher of any newspaper or periodical, after being three months previously notified that his publication is not taken out of the office to which it is sent for delivery, continues to forward such publication in the mail, the postmaster to whose office such publication is sent, will dispose of the same for the postage, unless the publisher shall pay it; and whenever any printed matter of any description, received during one quarter of the fiscal year, shall have remained in the office without being called for during the whole of any succeeding quarter, the postmaster of such office will sell the same, and credit the proceeds of such sale in his quarterly accounts in the usual manner.

5th. Quarterly payments in advance may be made either at the mailing office or the office of delivery. When made at the mailing office, satisfactory evidence of such payment must be exhibited to the postmaster at the office of delivery.

COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.—Imports into St. Louis by the river for two years commencing January 1st, 1850, and ending December 31st, 1851.

Articles.	1851.	1850.
Apples, green, bbls	13,094	20,291
" dried, bbls. & sacks,	20,642½	14,766
Axes, boxes	692	1,875
Bacon, casks	76,183½	27,106
" boxes	962	6,195
" bulk lbs	310,495	558,703
Bagging, pieces	2,765	1,262
Barley, bushels	149,859	72,591
Beans, barrels	1,862	1,378
" sacks	8,156	3,017
Beef, barrels	19,119	11,423
" ½ do	1,854	775
" tierces	.. ..	..
Beeswax, sacks, bbls., bxs.,	650½	..
Boots, boxes	19,735	27,160
" trunks	680	2,800
Brandy, bbls	2,855	5,723
Buffalo robes	95,844	64,654
Butter, bbls	2,181	1,926
" kegs	4,545½	5,349
" firkins	3,636	3,234
Candles, sperm, boxes	139	496
" tallow, "	2,092	2,806
Cattle	1,819	1,376
Cheese, boxes	31,340	26,381½
" casks	422	..
Cider, barrels	540½	801
Cigars, foreign, boxes, 1000 each	1,098	26,381
Cigars, domestic, boxes, 1000 each	938	1,633
Coffee, sacks	103,123	73,261
Corn, bushels	1,834,689	1,016,077

Articles.	1851.	1852.
Cotton yarns, packages	..	..
Dry goods, boxes	106,563	94,162
" packages	480,589	362,936
" bales	41,224	26,296
Fish, kegs	1,810	1,198
" boxes	4,783	5,843
" barrels	6,864	6,758
" half barrels	2,105	2,192
Feathers, sacks	1,143	1,593
Flaxseed, barrels	4,400½	2,348
Flour, barrels	194,857	326,072
" half do	6,324	7,321
Furs, packages	3,051	2,180
Gin, barrels	939	796
Ginseng, sacks and barrels	42	877
Glass, boxes	..	..
Hay, bales	23,280	25,271
Hemp, bales	64,607	62,696
Hemp seed, barrels	355	750
Hides	99,362	86,815
Hogs	17,885	12,226
Horses	833	2,098
Iron bars, tons	9,367¼	14,322
" pigs	6,683¼	4,468
" castings	1,214	2,485
Lard, barrels	60,646½	100,001
" kegs	16,227	17,433
Lead, pigs	521,734	601,786
" bars, lbs	38,250	113,150
" white, kegs	797	8,975
" red, "	91	..
Malt liquors, barrels	8,200½	7,725
Molasses, "	40,530½	32,463
Nails, kegs	63,736	88,813
Oakum, bales	1,506	2,612
Oats, bushels	776,141	712,617
Onions, sacks and barrels	21,897	14,629
Oil, sperm, barrels	1,677	2,038
" castor, "	459	1,678
" linseed, "	1,201½	2,587
" train, "	394	348
" lard, "	212	..
Paper, wrapping, reams	47,914	50,506
" writing, "	6,579	10,990
Peaches, green, barrels	1,207	743
" dried, "	1,187	2,260
" " sacks	4,273	5,831
Peltries, packages	1,066	1,362
Pork, barrels	114,899	135,662
" half do	3,052	7,321
" bulk	11,873,645	11,474,041
Potatoes, bbls. and sacks	58,650	13,401
Powder, kegs	14,887	18,505
Queensware, casks	2,720	3,197
" crates	2,453	2,508
Rice, tierces	2,579½	3,389
Rope, hemp, coils	33,935	33,442
" Manilla, "	1,643	5,649
Rum, bbls	198	706
Rye, bushels	7,656	3,468
Salt, domestic, fine, barrels,	444	805
" " coarse, "	37,200	24,219
" Liverpool B, sacks	17,302	23,252
" G. alum, "	119,867	159,699
" Turks I. "	46,594	94,038
Sheep	6,061	2,924
Shoes, boxes	12,057	17,022
" trunks	509	2,618
Skins	5,152	6,718
Soap, boxes	2,521	..
Sugar, hhds	29,722	24,159
" barrels	22,270	12,273
" boxes	16,098	13,926
Tallow, casks	376	439
" barrels	1,175½	809
Tar, "	10,090	1,126
" kegs	5,800	5,219
Tin plate, boxes	6,677	9,993
Tea, chests	1,058	2,873
" half chests	2,694	5,906
Tobacco, hhds	10,286	9,272
" boxes, manufact'd	10,235	10,309
Vinegar, barrels	755	1,134
Wheat, bushels	1,644,861	1,863,750
Whisky, barrels	48,541½	[illegible]
Wine "	5,364½	[illegible]
Wool, sacks	1,684	1,509

NOTE.—Several important articles in the trade of St. Louis are omitted in the list of imports to this city.

SAVANNAH, GEORGIA.—We regret not to have been able to procure later and more important information upon this city than appears under its appropriate head, or under that of Georgia Rail-Roads, United States Cotton Crop, &c., but we were disappointed from an unexpected quarter.

The returns of population by the last census, (below) and for which we are indebted to a friend, are supposed to fall short of the reality by at least 2,000.

UNITED STATES NAVY, 1st JANUARY, 1852.—There are in the United States Navy 68 captains, 97 commanders, 327 lieutenants, passed midshipmen 233, midshipmen 171.

Ships of the line.—Pennsylvania, 120 guns; Franklin, 74; Columbus, 74; Ohio, 74; North Carolina, 74; Delaware, Alabama, Vermont, Virginia, New-York, New-Orleans, 74 guns each. Total 11.

Razee, Independence, 54 guns. Total 1.

Frigates.—United States, Constitution, Potomac, Brandywine, Columbia, Congress, Cumberland, Savannah, Raritan, Santee, Sabine, St. Lawrence, 44 guns each; Constellation and Macedonia, 36 guns each. Total, 14 vessels.

Sloops of War.—Saratoga, John Adams, Vincennes, Warren, Falmouth, Fairfield, Vandalia, St. Louis, Cayenne, Levant, Portsmouth, Plymouth, St. Mary's, Jamestown, Germantown, Albany, 20 guns each; Ontario, Decatur, Preble, Marion, Dale, 16 guns each. Total, 21 vessels.

Brigs.—Dolphin, Porpoise, Bainbridge, Perry, 10 guns each. Total, 4 vessels.

Schooners.—Wave, 1 gun; Phœnix, 2; Petrel, 1. Total, 3 vessels.

Steam Frigates.—Mississippi, Susquehanna, Powhatan, Saranac, San Jacinto. Total, 5.

Steamers.—Fulton, Michigan, Alleghany, Union, Vixen, Waterwitch, Massachusetts, General Taylor, Engineer, John Hancock. Total, 10.

Store Ships and Brigs.—Relief, Lexington, Supply, Fredonia. Total, 5 vessels.

U. STATES RELIGIOUS STATISTICS (ESTIMATED.)—*Roman Catholics*, 1,073 churches, 1,233,350 communicants. *Episcopalians*, 1,232 churches 67,550 members. *Presbyterians* (Old School), 2,675 churches, 140,060 members. *Lutheran*, 1604 churches, 163,000 members. *Methodist* Church North and South, 1,000,000 communicants. *Congregationalists*, 1971 churches, 197,196 members. *Baptists*, 8,872 churches, 719,290 members. *Campbellite Baptists*, 1848 churches, 118,618 members. There are 95,000 other *Presbyterians*, 1,000,000 *Dutch* and *German Reformed*, 6000 *Moravians*, 3,000 *Reformed Methodists*, 20,000 *Wesleyan Methodists*, 15,000 *United Brethren*, 15,000 *Allbright Methodists*, 58,000 *Mennonites*, 30,000 *Unitarians*, 60,000 *Universalists* 5000, *Swedenborgians*, 3,586 *Six Principle Baptists*, 6,243 *Seventh Day Baptists*, 56,000 *Free Will Baptists*, 10,000 *Church of God Baptists*, 3000 *Christian Baptists*, 64,000 *Anti-mission Baptists*.

U. STATES CURRENCY, COINAGE, ETC.—The large increase which the specie currency has undergone the last four years, has, up to this time, been without any very perceptible influence upon values, or the rent of capital generally, and that it is so, may, without doubt, be ascribed to the fact that all other products of industry have increased in an equal or even greater ratio, and the channels of circulation which were before nearly bare of coin, particularly gold, have become, at least on the seaboard, far better stocked with gold. We may take cial data in order to approximate the quantity of d and silver coins actually now in the country, d the rate of its increase. Prior to the year 1821 re were no official records of the imports and exrts of the precious metals; up to that year there d been coined in the United States, however, ,541,542 of gold, and $10,900,490 of silver, which ould make, together, $18,442,032; but nearly all e small circulating coin was then, as now, Spanh fractions, and owing to the false location of the int, nearly all the gold imported, and which came New-York, remained in the banks' vaults in the reign shape. In those days the difficulty, risk and expense of sending gold from New-York to Philadelphia for coinage, was too great for any individual or bank to undertake. There had also been some specie, but not much in the country at the formation of the government. Under all these circumstances, viz: the actual coinage, the retention of foreign coins in the banks, the circulating Spanish coin, &c., Mr. Gallatin and Mr. Crawford both estimated the specie in the country at about $30,000,000. Since that time the amount of specie has been more accurately ascertained. The import and export of foreign coins and bullion have been, since 1820, as follows:

Statement of the Import and Export of Gold and Silver Coin and Bullion annually, from October 1, 18 20, *being the period at which they were first recorded, to June* 30, 1851.

	Gold Bullion		Gold Coin		Silver Bullion		Silver Coin	
ears	Import Dolls	Export Dolls	Import Dolls	Export Dolls	Import Dolls	Export Dolls	Import Dolls	Export Dolls
821					84,890	90	7,980,009	10,477,969
822					411,444	28,248	2,958,402	10,781,932
823					230,771	1,800	4,867,125	6,371,187
1824	11,941		34,954		319,451		6,013,489	7,014,552
1825	151,020		378,257	315,672	368,827	10,849	5,252,661	8,470,534
1826	116,194	15,648	562,546	434,555	462,087	25,090	5,740,131	3,632,385
1827	91,049	8,610	1,019,399	820,304	422,605	3,236	6,618,077	6,139,155
1828	69,650	13,663	738,570	928,384	465,064	42,588	6,216,458	6,565,804
1829	110,638	25,270	706,028	935,102	837,107	213,821	5,749,639	3,136,941
1830	115,267	10,637	705,879	474,876	1,047,343	24,154	6,285,475	731,955
1831	166,191	21,690	765,838	899,365	686,283	203,572	5,687,633	5,831,830
1832	102,021	7,615	614,665	630,850	736,711	255,717	4,454,107	3,351,417
1833	48,276	26,773	563,585	495,890	297,849		6,160,676	1,722,196
1834	293,665	12,681	3,472,507	276,999	514,417	2,591	13,631,043	1,383,987
1835	655,457		1,669,739	625.679	765,283		10,040,968	5,122,495
1836	1,913,137	25,777	5,318,725	275,940	318,350	52,695	5,850,669	3,624,186
1837	536,549	101,563	1,895,265	1,828,653	594,291	5,600	7,490,309	2,756,914
1838	230,694		11,444,189	740,263	392,843	2,500	5,679,390	2,292,342
1839	86,540	77,660	1,065,652	2,814,650	154,680	8,040	4,267,391	3,968,035
1840	273,127		2,812,030	1,468,300	469,434	47,689	5,328,222	4,665,952
1841	134,181	166,086	1,098,346	676,757	274,225	63,011	3,401,730	6,271,452
Total to Sept. '41	5,105,588	513,673	34,866,174	14,642,239	9,835,945	991,291	131,673,803	104,304,220
1842	56,365		700,929	1,134,002	39,458		3,291,464	2,508,713
1843-9 mos.	100,835	450	16,965,602	299,808	142,199		5,111,699	1,113.104
1844	83,150		1,530,154	1,183,116	208,694		4,008,031	4,087,693
1845	66,103		752,747	2,210,979	41,275		3,210,117	5,551,070
1846	14.150		896,263	1,629,348	33.579		2,633,740	1,852,069
1847	151,749		21,423,182	2,975,105	71,923		2,474,485	869,103
1848	56,882		3,351,873	8,379,785	392,939	174,971	2,558,590	4,595,488
1849	297,570	6,500	3,771,077	1,008,859	154,688		2,427,905	3,432,415
1850	175,984	2,160	1,600,722	2,511,788	26,316		2,825,770	2,962,367
1851	196,466	1,528	3,372,644	4,758,805	48,471	4,534	1,835,942	6,631,305
Total to June 30	1,199,234	10,638	54,365,193	24,082,591	1,159,542	179,505	30,677,743	33,703,397

The aggregates sum up thus:

	Gold			Silver		
	Imports	Exports	Excess of Imports	Imports	Exports	Excess of Imports
Coin	$89,231,367	$38,704,830	$59,506,537	$162,351,546	$138,007,617	$24,343,929
Bullion	6,304,822	524,311	5,780,511	11,015,478	1,170,796	9,846,691
Total	$95,536,189	$30,249,141	$56,287.048	$173,367,024	$139,178,413	$34,188,620

The supply of silver has been very small, and it will be observed from the imports and exports, that in the last ten years the export is actually $3,000,000, say 10 per cent. more than the apparent imports. These are the facts according to the official figures, but really the stock of silver has undergone no diminution. The exports are nearly all foreign coins, which come here unreported in the pockets of immigrants, and return upon the manifests. Thus, in the months of July and August last, there were exported from New-York $7,000,000, of five francs, German and English silver, nearly all of which came in the pockets of immigrants, unknown to official returns; much gold comes also in the same private manner, and the re-exports of those pieces are equal to $500,000, because they are the most desirable means of remittance; as there is no available mint in the United States, their national character is not changed. The Atlantic gold mines first began to furnish gold to the mint in 1824, and since the discovery of California they have somewhat declined. The total supply of American gold deposited at all the mints up to July 31, 1852, was as follows:

SUPPLY OF UNITED STATES GOLD.

	California	Other Mints	Total
1824 to 1846		$10,713,211	$10,713,211
1846		1,139,357	1,139,357
1847		889,065	889,065
1848	$45,301	851,374	896,675
1849	6,151,361	927,784	7.079,144
1850	36,273,097	665,217	36,938,314
1851	55,938,232	602,380	56,540,612
1852 7 months	31,298,923	481,930	31,779,853
	$129,706,813	$16,219,438	$145,976,251

Thus we have the domestic production, and if we add this to the net import, the supply amounts to $202,263,299 of gold since 1820. Now the actual United States coinage at the mint and branches, has been as follows:

UNITED STATES COINAGE.

	Gold	Silver	Total Coinage
Coinage to 1821	$7,541,542	$10,900,490	$18,442,033
" 1821 to 1852	172,747,755	67,081,918	239,829,673
" Jan. 1, to Aug. 1, 1852	31,951,751	455,545	32,407,296
Total	$212,241,048	$78,437,953	$290,679,002

The exports of United States coin from 1821 to June, 1851, reached $39,874,357; and for the year ending July 1, 1852, they have been about $35,000,000. The official returns do not distinguish between silver and gold in the export of the United States coin, but during the past year they have been nearly all gold. It results then as follows:

		Exp'ted as Coin
United States coinage—		
1821 to 1851	$176,341,149	$21,804,777
1851	63,488,524	18,069,580
1852	32,407,296	35,000,000
Total	$272,236,969	$74,874,357

This gives an increase of near 200 millions dollars of United States coin since 1821. It will be observed that the gold coinage since 1821, is much larger than the domestic supply of the metal. It has been as follows:

Domestic supply of gold, 1821 to 1852	$145,976,251
Excess imports of gold	56,287,048
Total supply, 1821 to 1852	$202,263,299
" coinage "	204,699,516

Thus, the coinage has been greater than the whole apparent supply, but it arises from re-coinage from jewelry and ornaments melted up at the mint, and from the emigrant supplies of gold which do not enter into the official returns. Now, notwithstanding this apparent coinage of all the importation, the quantity of foreign coins in the market is large, and always in good supply. In order to show the nature of the supply, we take a table of the exports of coin from New-York for the months of July and August for two years:

EXPORTS OF COIN FROM NEW-YORK, JULY AND AUGUST.

	1851.	1852.
United States gold coin	$6,546,580	$4,763,485
" silver coin	1,037,955	110,000
British silver coin	48,600	15,630
Mexican dollars	131,268	237,000
Other foreign silver	357,329	698,607
English gold	313,894	85,057
Doubloons, gold	127,004	33,156
Other foreign gold	80,481	23,000
Gold dust	15,627	6,000
Total	$8,658,738	$6,271,934

Thus, notwithstanding the apparent small supply of foreign money by the official returns of importation, the export returns show that the markets are well supplied. Under these circumstances, if the estimate by Mr. Crawford was correct at $30,000,000 in 1820, and the United States coinage has increased $200,000,000, with an apparent large supply of foreign coin still in the market, the stock of specie in the country is now not short of $230,000,000 we allow, but little for the use of the precious metals in the arts, because a great quantity of that raw material is refabricated, and of late years, since the process of galvanizing has been introduced, the quantity of the metals used in ornaments is far less than formerly. The Hon. Daniel Webster estimated the amount of coin in the country, in 1835, in his speech upon the Sub-Treasury, at $80,000,000; since then it has increased $150,000,000, without taking into consideration the quantities of bullion which circulate as money in California; the actual money there is that which has passed through the United States mint. Now, notwithstanding this great supply of money, the uses for it have multiplied immensely; California alone has taken off a very considerable quantity, and the west and south and east are comparatively well supplied with coin, where but a few years since there was none.

Since 1840 over 8,000,000 souls have been added to the population of the United States, and according to the census the whole white population doubled between the years 1830 and 1850; that is to say, it rose from 10,537,378 at the former period to 19,619,366 in 1850. As in the last two years the increase has been more rapid, the probability is, that from 1832 to 1852 the number of whites have quite doubled; a fact, which in itself, if the relative wealth and trade per year remained the same, would have required a doubling of the specie—that is to say, an addition of $80,000,000. But the productive wealth of the country, its industry and traffic, are very much more per head than they were in 1830. Thus, the exports of domestic produce from the country, were $6 per head in 1830, and $10 per head in 1851; the imports were $7 per head at the former period, and are now $11 per head. The property which came via the New-York canals to tidewater was under $10,000,000 in 1830, and was $55,000,000 in 1851. The production of coal and iron rose from nothing to $20,000,000; about the same with sugar in Louisiana. The production of cotton has increased from 1,000,000 bales to over 3,000,000 bales, say from $40,000,000 to $120,000,000 in value. The rail-road and canal traffic has increased $30,000,000 per annum, requiring a large currency. Manufactures and small trades have more than quadrupled. Under all these circumstances, if, at $8 per head, money was far from abundant in 1830, its relative abundance would not now be increased at $12 per head, which would give the amount now estimated in the country, viz: $240,000,000. But the increase in population, the extension of rail-roads, and the development of natural wealth, are growing with a more rapid pace than ever, and a proportional increased demand for currency must attend those circumstances for a long time to come. The shower of coin which has sprinkled over the face of the country, in the last two years, has but partially refreshed the thirsty soil. There was a want of money which is far from being satisfied, and the distribution of the money over the country has been most iniquitously retarded by the want of a mint in New-York, and once more Congress has adjourned, having dodged the most important measure to the material interests of the whole people which could have occupied their attention.—*Kettell.*

UNITED STATES EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FROM CUBA—1851.

Domestic exports		Domestic exports	
Oil, Sperm. galls.	17,087	Candles, tallow lb	715,674
" Whale	184,094	Soap	390,748
" Linseed	3,581	Tobacco manuf'd	191,211
Candls., sprm. lb.	56,925	Leather,	16,864
Fish, dried qtls.	37,509	Shoes pair	1,552
" pickled bbls.	1,799	Cables cwt	737
" " kegs	85	Gunpowder lb	63,714
Staves & heads M	3,713	Salt bush	5,770
Shingles	616	Lead lb.	6,248
Boards M ft.	44,491	Nails	2,694,886
Naval stores bbls.	2,764	Castings	13,806
Beef	1,652	Other Iron $	518,603
Tallow, lb.	546,767	Copper Goods $	15,287
Butter	412,902	Drugs	56,008
Cheese	256,162	Cotton goods $	25,741
Pork bbls.	3,364	Flax	30
Hams lb.	1,237,919	Apparel	1,432
Lard	7,836,153	Earthenware	1,128
Horses	108	Combs & brushes $	2,976
Flour bbls.	5,511	Morocco	6,987
Corn bush	229,105	Fire engines	4,284
Corn meal bbls.	3,398	Printing types	1,744
Bread	1,369	Books and music	10,630
" kegs.	3,678	Paper	31,119
Potatoes bush	66,058	Paints	11,230
Apples bbls.	6,964	Glass	21,123
Rice tcs.	27,618	Tin	2,731
Cotton lb.	113,572	Pewter	488
Tobacco hhds.	18	Specie	20,535
Hops lb.	1,119	Trunks	3,720
Spirits galls.	1,472	Bricks	2,693
Beer	85,391	Coal tons	13,832
Turpentine	15,071	Ice $	18,320
Furniture $	58,783		
Coaches	17,717	Total value	$5,239,276
Hats	873	In Amer. ves.	5,039,768
Saddlery	5,122		

Exports—Foreign goods		Imports	
Specie	$1,013,529	Gold $	317,768
Worsted goods	10,982	Coffee lb	3,099,084
Silk goods	88,532	Copper ore $	8,740
Linens	7,406	Copper pigs	2,331
Apparel	2,780	Cotton goods $	5,029
Nails lb.	4,000	Silk	5,435
Brandy galls.	2,123	Plyg. cards pcks	15,588
Oil, linseed	3,311	Cabinet wood	97,580
Cocoa lb.	98,343	Dye wood	11,505
Figs	33,374	Raw hides	5,379
Pepper	603,189	Cocoa lb.	32,898
Candles, tallow	1,600	Molasses galls.	31,518,462
Stearine	10,200	Sugar, brn. lb.	275,327,497
Cordage	29,396	" white	2,274,194
Salt bush.	71,721	Almonds	27.125
Fish, dried cwt.	3,253	Indigo	13,144
Fish bbls.	490	Tobacco leaf	3,396,796
		Cigars M.	162,904
Tot. val.	$1,284,487	Other tobac. lb.	22.460
In Am. ves.	1,279,244		
		Tot. val.	$17,046,837
		In. Am. ves.	15,615,951

UNITED STATES EXPORTS—1851,

Summary Statement of the value of the Exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of July, 1850, *and ending on the* 30*th of June*, 1851:

THE SEA.

Fisheries—		
Whale and other fish oil	$882,485	
Spermaceti oil	1,044,967	
Whalebone	689,662	
Spermaceti candles	195,916	
Dried Fish or cod fisheries	367,729	
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel	113,932	
	3,294,698	

THE FOREST.

Product of wood—		
Staves, shingles, boards, scantling, hewn timber	$2,348,621	
Other lumber	205,190	
Masts and spars	70,095	
Oak bark and other dye	355,477	
All manufactures of wood	2,076,395	
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, turpentine	1,063,842	
Ashes, pot and pearl	649,091	
		6,768,711
Ginseng		100,549
Skins and furs		977,762
		7,847,021

AGRICULTURE.

Product of animals—		
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle	$1,689,958	
Butter and cheese	1,124,652	
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs	4,368,015	
Horses and mules	198,155	
Sheep	18,875	
		7,399,655
Vegetable food—		
Wheat	1,025,732	
Flour	10,524,331	
Indian corn	1,762,549	
Indian meal	622,866	
Rye meal	145,802	
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	120,670	
Biscuit or ship bread	354,286	
Potatoes	79,314	
Apples	71,367	
Rice	2,170,927	
		16,877,844
Indigo		2,803
Cotton		112,315,317
Tobacco		9,219,251
Hemp		29,114
All other agricultural products—		
Flaxseed	18,988	
Brown sugar	29,170	
Hops	11,636	
		59,794
		145,903,778

MANUFACTURES.

Wax		122.835
Refined sugar		219,588
Chocolate		3,256
Spirits from grain		36,084
Spirits from molasses		239,622
Molasses		16,830
Vinegar		16,915
Beer, ale, porter, cider		57,975
Linseed oil and spirits of turpentine		145,410
Household furniture		862,830
Coaches and other carriages		199,421
Hats		103,768
Saddlery		30,100
Tallow candles and soap		609,782
Snuff and tobacco		1,143,547
Leather, boots and shoes		458,838
Cordage		52,054
Gunpowder		154 257
Salt		61,424
Lead		11,774
Iron—pig, bar, and nails		215,652
Castings		164 425
All manufactures of		1,875,621
Copper and brass		91,871
Medicinal drugs		351,585
Cotton piece goods—		
Printed or colored	$1,006.561	
Uncolored,	5,571,576	
Twist, yarn, and thread	37,260	
Other manufactures of	625,808	
		7,241,205

Hemp and flax—	
Cloth and thread	1,647
Bags and all manufactures of	8,376
Wearing apparel	1,211 894
Earthen and stoneware	23,096
Combs and buttons	27,334
Brushes	8,257
Billiard tables and apparatus	1,798
Umbrellas, parasols, sunshades	22,260
Leather and morocco skins (not sold per pound)	13,309
Fire engines and apparatus	9,488
Printing presses and type	71,401
Musical instruments	55,700
Books and maps	163,912
Paper and stationery	155,664
Paints and varnish	109,834
Manufactures of glass	185,436
Tin	27,323
Pewter and lead	16,435
Marble and stone	41,449
Gold and silver and gold leaf	66,639
Gold and silver coin	18,069,580
Artificial flowers and jewelry	121,013
Trunks	12,237
Brick and lime	22,045
	$34,413,306
Coal	163,977
Ice	106,565
Articles not enumerated—	
Manufactured	3,798,341
Raw produce	1,166,298
	4,960,239
Total	$196,689,713

UNITED STATES TONNAGE—1850-51.

Comparative view of the registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States; showing the tonnage employed in the whale fishery; also, the proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, cod fishery, mackerel fishery, and whale fishery, from 1815 *to* 1851, *inclusive.*

YEARS.	Total tonnage	Registered tonnage in whalefishery	Proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the—			
			Coasting trade	Cod fishery	Mackerel fishery	Whale fishery
	Tons and 95ths					
1815	1,368,127 78	—	435,066 87	26,570 33	—	1,229 92
1816	1,372,218 53	—	479,979 14	37,879 30	—	1,168 00
1817	1,399,912 41	4,871 41	481,457 92	53,990 26	—	349 92
1818	1,225,184 20	16,134 77	503,140 37	58,551 72	—	614 63
1819	1,260,751 61	31,700 40	523,556 20	65,044 92	—	686 35
1820	1,280,166 24	35,391 44	539,080 46	60,842 55	—	1,053 66
1821	1,298 958 70	26,070 83	559,434 57	51,351 49	—	1,924 40
1822	1,324,699 17	45,449 42	573,080 02	58,405 35	—	3,133 50
1823	1,336,565 68	39,918 13	566,408 88	67,621 14	—	585 37
1824	1,399,163 02	33,165 70	589,223 01	68,419 00	—	180 06
1825	1,423,110 77	35,379 24	587,273 07	70,626 02	—	—
1826	1,534,189 83	41,757 32	666,420 44	63,761 42	—	296 85
1827	1,620,607 78	45,653 21	732,937 65	74,048 81	—	338 94
1828	1,741,391 87	54,621 08	758,922 12	74,947 74	—	180 34
1829	1,260,797 81	57,284 38	508,858 10	101,796 78	—	—
1830	1,191,776 43	38,911 82	516,978 18	61,554 57	35,973 38	792 87
1831	1,267,846 29	82,315 79	539,723 74	60,977 81	46,210 80	481 82
1832	1,439,450 21	72,868 84	649,627 40	54,027 70	47,427 72	377 47
1833	1,606,149 94	101,158 17	744,198 60	62,720 70	48,725 43	478 29
1834	1,758,907 14	108,060 14	783,618 65	56,403 70	61,082 11	364 16
1835	1,824,940 14	97,640 00	792,301 20	72,374 18	64,443 11	—
1836	1,820,102 65	144,680 50	873,023 21	63,307 37	64,425 25	1,573 96
1837	1,896,685 69	127,241 81	956,980 60	80,551 89	46,810 90	1,894 86
1838	1,995,639 80	119 629 89	1,041,105 18	70,064 00	56,649 16	5,229 55
1839	2,096,478 81	131,845 25	1,153,551 80	72,258 68	35,983 87	439 69
1840	2,180,764 16	136,926 64	1,176,694 46	76,035 65	28,269 19	—
1841	2,130,744 37	157,405 17	1,107,067 88	66,551 84	11,321 13	—
1842	2,092,390 69	151,612 74	1,045,753 39	54,804 02	16,096 83	377 31
1843	2,158,601 93	152,374 86	1,076,155 59	61,224 25	11,775 70	143 33
1844	2,280,095 07	168,293 63	1,109,614 44	85,224 77	16,170 66	321 14
1845	2,417,002 06	190,695 65	1,190,898 27	69,825 66	21,413 16	206 92
1846	2,562,084 81	186,980 16	1,289,870 89	72,516 17	36,463 16	439 58
1847	2,839,045 77	193,858 72	1,452,623 35	70,177 52	31,451 13	—
1848	3,154 941 85	192,179 90	1,620,988 16	82,651 82	43,558 78	432 75
1849	3,334,015 29	180,186 29	1,730,410 84	42,970 19	73,853 78	—
1850	3.535,454 23	146,016 71	1,755,796 42	85,646 30	58 111 94	—
1851	3,772,439 43	181,644 52	1,854,317 90	87,475 89	50,539 02	—

NITED STATES COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.—From the latest accounts prepared at the Treasury the United States, and published by order of Congress, we collect and arrange the following:

he number of American vessels which cleared for foreign countries during the year ending June 30, 1, was 9,274. of 3,200,519 tonnage, with a crew of 113,640 men, and 3,427 boys. The number of foreign ssels 10,712, 1,929,535 tons, 89,659 men, and 1,920 boys. Total clearances, American and foreign, 19,986 ssels, 5,130,054 tons, 303,299 men, and 5,356 boys.

he number of American vessels which entered in the same time was 8,951, 3,054,349 tons, 113,471 men, 16 boys. Number of foreign vessels 10,759, 1,939 091 tons, 90,796 men, 1,831 boys. Total American d foreign entered, 19,710 vessels, 4,993,440 tons, 204,267 men, 4,937 boys.

STATEMENT OF FOREIGN IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES, YEAR ENDING 1ST JULY, 1851.

WHENCE IMPORTED.	MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM.					
	Free of duty	Paying duties	Total	In American vessels	In foreign vessels	Frm. dominions of each power.
Russia	$36,344	$1,356,438	$1,392,782	$1,007,981	$384,801	$1,392,782
Prussia	—	20,542	20,542	15,392	5,150	20,542
Sweden and Norway	581	966.656	967,237	161,069	806,168	996,238
Swedish West Indies	19,587	9.41	29,001	28,654	347	
Danish West Indies	16,096	219,798	235,894	03,05	32,839	274,781
Denmark	—	38,887	38,887	—	38,887	
Hanse Towns	297,949	9,710,415	10,008,364	5,098,915	4,909,449	10,008,364
Holland	383 917	1,668,789	2,052,706	771,761	1,280,945	3,124,997
Dutch East Indies	208,356	201,792	410,148	410,148	—	
Dutch West Indies	38,970	533,500	572,470	539,501	32,969	
Dutch Guiana	—	89,673	89,673	89,673	—	
Belgium	5,840	2,371,790	2,377,630	1,840,031	537,599	2,377,630
England	2,283,452	88,328,786	90,612,238	65,984,122	24,628,116	105,323,079
Scotland	3,097	2,996,613	2,999,710	1,745,368	1,254,342	
Ireland	1,104	234,834	235,938	26,589	209,349	
Gibraltar	465	73.139	73,604	13,292	60,312	
Malta	248	25,919	26,167	12,805	13,362	
British East Indies	54,677	3,281,658	3,336,335	3,309,967	26,368	
Cape of Good Hope	1,300	121,923	123,223	121,663	1,560	
British Honduras	18,258	156,268	174,526	143,751	30,775	
British Guiana	25,904	18,309	44,213	40,517	3,696	
British West Indies	302,280	701,591	1,003,871	533,043	470,828	
British American Colonies	160,367	1,576,284	1,736,651	210,270	1,526,381	
Other British Colonies	—	132	132	132	—	
Canada	1 529,685	3,426,786	4,956,471	2,360,174	2,596,297	
France on the Atlantic	397,164	29,391,960	29,789,124	28,153,261	1,635,863	31,767,410
France on the Mediterranean	3,538	1,922,891	1,926,429	775,308	1,151,121	
French Guiana	11,000	17,948	28,948	28,948	—	
French West Indies	18,914	8,995	22,909	14,146	8,763	
Spain on the Atlantic	4,807	446,990	451,797	229,269	222,528	22,972,23
Spain on the Mediterranean	10,383	1,700,393	1,710,776	1,071,076	639,700	
Teneriffe and other Canaries	—	27,718	27.718	11,301	16,417	
Manilla and other Philippine Islands	20,582	1,234,106	1,254,688	1,181,225	73,463	
Cuba	661,172	16,385,759	17,046.931	15,615,957	1,430,974	
Other Spanish West Indies	175,087	2,305,242	2,480,329	2,220,132	260,197	
Portugal	150	367,398	367,548	26,480	341,068	504,698
Madeira	29	102,419	102,448	88,846	13,602	
Fayal and other Azores	22,793	10,059	32,852	32,122	730	
Cape de Verds	681	1,169	1,850	1,850	—	
Italy	23,032	2,028,865	2,051,897	1,148,298	908,599	2,051,897
Sicily	3,866	822,058	825,924	423,907	402,017	825,924
Sardinia	250	2,552	2,802	121	2,681	2,802
Trieste and other Austrian ports	9,862	720,926	730,788	47,210	683,578	730,788
Turkey	10,195	891,041	901,236	718,392	182,844	901,236
Hayti	1,315,689	574,279	1,889,968	1,664,591	225,377	1,889,968
Mexico	1,111,659	693,120	1,804,779	1,446,095	358,684	1,804,779
Central Republic of America	26,521	123,335	149 856	137,424	12,432	149,856
New Grenada	518,523	177,083	695,606	667,284	28,322	695,606
Venezuela	1,481,946	898,349	2,380,295	2,037,576	342,719	2,380,295
Brazil	8,889,131	2,636,173	11,525,304	8,891,582	2,633,722	11,525,304
Cisplatine Republic	1,560	17,554	19,114	—	19,114	19,114
Argentine Republic	101	3,265,281	3,265,382	1,915,289	1,350,093	3,265,382
Chili	76,821	,657,925	2,734,746	2,734,746	—	2,734,746
Peru	48,085	46,648	94,733	63,574	31,159	94,733
Equador	806	75,886	76,692	76,692	—	76,692
South America generally	39,700	129	39,829	10,200	29,629	39,829
China	4,638,170	2,426,974	7,065,144	6,413,206	651,938	7,065,144
Africa generally	184,384	978,792	1,163,176	1,091,661	71,515	1,163,176
West Indies generally	—	25,751	25,751	25,751	—	25,751
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	1,172	1,126	2,298	2,298	—	2,298
Sandwich Islands	10,337	6,515	16,852	16,852	—	16,852
Total	25,106,587	191,118,345	216,224,932	163,650,543	52,574,389	216,224,932

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

tical view of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of Exports to and Imports from h foreign country, and the tonnage of American and foreign vessels arriving from and departing, dur- the year ending June 30, 1851.

COUNTRIES.	COMMERCE.			NAVIGATION.			
	Value of Exports.			American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.	
	Foreign produce	Total domestic and foreign	Value of imports	Entered the United States	Cleared from the United States	Entered the United States	Cleared from the United States
a	$145,987	$1,611,691	$1,392,782	9,817	9,241	3,906	3,530
ia	5,444	85,913	20,512	262	184	704	1,535
en and Norway	21,566	782,366	967,237	2,669	1,545	25,225	9,088
ish West Indies	785	61,902	29,001	278	1,319	—	—
ark	19,540	111,797	38,887	—	199	544	2,165
h West Indies	125,602	1,028,289	235,894	10,386	18,923	5,052	4,175
e Towns	641,491	6,047,447	10,008,364	21,734	16,696	90,539	69,734
nd	284,054	2,195,169	2,052,706	11,417	9,239	18,262	26,914
East Indies	43,140	247,570	410,148	3,329	3,016	150	5,661
h West Indies	138,089	504,987	572,470	15,923	7,687	7,663	866
h Guiana	5,582	91,073	89,673	4,222	4,927	763	394
um	142,619	2,852,012	2,377,630	16,578	17,654	7,524	3,289
and	8,151,266	113,273,187	90,612,23	619,592	621,566	411,611	274,293
and	261,937	4,072,940	2,999,710	18,219	18,508	46,215	22,967
d	1,200	599,888	235,93	6,488	3,142	74,021	12,615
ltar	52,529	230,433	78,604	509	3,900	1,114	1,962
	12,238	76,299	26,167	300	1,097	694	746
h East Indies	175,484	688,390	3,326,335	29,9 7	49,216	2,813	2,964
of Good Hope	—	161,891	122,223	1,223	2,501	238	827
tius	2,976	19,858	—	—	—	—	—
h Honduras	23,362	237,168	174,526	3,055	8,933	2,524	5,125
h Guiana	3,734	544,288	44,213	2,781	12,001	1,567	4,929
h West Indies	159,949	4,103,509	1,003,871	58,853	88,534	43,315	42,457
ia	2,093,306	7,929,140	4,956,471	1,013,275	927,013	514,383	516,893
h American Colonies	861,230	,086,783	1,736,651	62,458	108,225	362,218	392,507
British Colonies	—	—	182	—	—	—	—
e on the Atlantic	2,814,668	27,381,735	29,789,124	185,696	147,093	26,498	12,533
e on the Mediterran.	135,393	870,411	1,926,429	7,146	16,614	14,656	16,887
h West Indies	20,702	310,281	22,909	3,983	10,888	2,353	871
elon and French fisher.	—	3,715	—	—	672	—	9,673
h Guiana	651	46,844	28,948	681	1,006	—	—
bon	2,875	22,728	—	—	—	—	—
h possessions in Africa	—	—	—	—	—	—	194
on the Atlantic	1,075	959,788	451,797	9,940	14,688	6,547	12,494
on the Mediterranean	187,472	4,594,803	1,710,776	15,101	9,676	19,590	66,814
iffe and other Canaries	5,639	19,179	27,718	309	753	746	151
lla&Philippine Islands	7,000	132,544	1,254,688	9,933	15,134	2,149	4,985
	1,98 ,847	6,524,123	17,046,931	355,515	361,732	53,162	22,946
Rico& othr Span.W.I.	57,209	1,018,619	2,480,320	48,336	36,320	7,874	6,013
gal	4,900	172,338	367,548	961	2,470	5,175	5,076
ira	7,176	101,765	102,448	1,068	3,379	137	1,374
and other Azores	1,046	21,285	32,852	1,864	1,532	678	723
de Verd Islands	2,437	59,913	1,850	111	1,505	—	739
generally	127,406	1,864,240	2,051,897	—	—	—	—
any	—	—	—	5,210	1,513	4,710	485
	8,193	49,936	825,924	27,178	2,848	16,473	1,916
nia	19,401	330,289	2,802	168	6,741	6,204	8,479
fical States	—	—	—	—	—	310	—
e & othr Austrian ports	230 894	2,496,467	730,788	814	10,179	6,281	13,371
ey, Levant, &c.	65,529	227,733	901,236	6,704	4,268	2,109	—
e	—	—	—	207	—	—	—
	167,918	1,847,290	1,889,968	39,940	33,153	7,890	7,596
co	567,098	1,581,783	1,804,779	29,407	31,019	12,701	20,146
al America	39,089	262,391	149,856	8,550	27,565	209	4,466
Grenada	533.121	3,040,822	695,606	166,375	205,390	9,960	12,585
zuela	189,746	1,044,525	. 2,380,295	17,103	11,761	2,738	2,891
ia	—	—	—	383	189	254	139
l	623,960	3,752,916	11,525,304	63,663	63,629	22,498	7,668
tine Republic	414,916	1.074,768	3,265,382	13,382	11,661	11,005	6,165
tine Republic	13,078	45,789	16,114	154	1,320	1,992	947
	286,428	1,895,305	2,734,746	30,068	48,140	23,396	41,667
	22,338	272,098	94,733	20,102	18,920	5,761	13,519
a	829,342	2,485,287	7,065.144	27,587	46,317	11,327	10,198
Indies generally	—	76,936	25.751	—	—	—	—
dor	—	—	76,692	586	219	410	508
America generally	40,715	76,911	39,829	246	1,768	1,185	—
ia	—	—	—	—	257	—	—
a generally	65,283	1,340,644	1,163,176	12,675	12,978	1,085	595
generally	1,875	71,961	—	—	—	—	—
h Seas & Pacific Ocean	95,832	666,978	2,298	48,501	54,678	1,040	4,013
wich Islands	381	381	: 16,852	18,992	36,390	3,915	12,008
ralia	—	—	—	6,381	7,832	27,168	25,998
west Coast	—	—	—	187	1,960	—	—
nland	—	—	—	—	376	—	—
tic Ocean	—	—	—	3,077	6,960	—	—
n Islands	—	—	—	846	—	—	—
n Ocean	—	—	—	3,393	4,540	—	—
rtain places	—	—	—	102	—	—	46
	21,698,293	218,388,011	216,224,932	3,054,349	3,200,519	[illegible]	[illegible]

UNITED STATES.—National character of foreign vessels entered or sailed from U. S. year ending July, 1851.

RECAPITULATION.

ENTERED AND SAILED.	Entered		Cleared	
	No	Tons	No	Tons
Russian	42	17,579	30	12,667
Prussian	47	15,622	60	18,313
Swedish	199	62.686	207	65,689
Danish	43	8,662	41	8,427
Hanseatic	286	109,108	298	100.570
Dutch	69	21,708	66	19,965
Belgian	24	7,754	18	5,560
Mecklenburg	12	3,565	10	2,934
Oldenburg	12	2,898	10	2,011
Hanoverian	7	1,312	5	1,596
British	9,489	1,559,869	9,423	1,552,170
French	95	25,252	100	26,608
Spanish	176	44,592	168	41,266
Portuguese	18	3,328	23	4.424
Austrian	15	6,723	20	8,125
Sardinian	57	14,746	54	15,075
Sicilian	21	5,391	29	7,807
Mexican	36	4,042	38	4,053
Venezuelan	9	1,445	10	1,862
Brazilian	9	2,681	8	2,212
New-Grenadian	9	2,006	7	1,574
Argentine	7	1,427	5	884
Cisplatine	3	646	—	—
Chilian	26	6,044	27	5,811
Hawaiian	16	2,002	14	1,728
Peruvian	17	4,163	23	5,578
Tahitien	—	—	2	129
Equadorian	5	1,533	4	704
Cent. American	1	66	4	539
Lubec	5	1,445	3	838
Italian	3	486	5	916
Pontifical	1	310	—	—
Total	10,759	1,939,091	10,712	1.929,535

UNITED STATES.—Number of vessels built in, year ending July, 1851.

STATES	Ships	Brigs	Schooners	Sloops and canal boats	Steamers	Total number of vessels built	Total tonnage.—Tons and 95ths
Maine	102	45	94	9	4	254	77,398 49
N. H.	7	—	—	—	—	7	8,158 06
Vermont	—	—	4	—	—	4	561 29
Mass	50	4	78	1	—	133	41,323 93
R. Island	3	1	4	3	1	12	3,056 60
Conn	1	—	22	7	5	35	3,414 20
N. York	25	2	60	88	54	229	76,805 02
N. Jersey	1	—	47	20	2	70	5,869 40
Penn	4	3	14	103	76	200	28,6 8 12
Delaware	1	—	7	4	3	15	2,058 47
Maryland	15	10	101	—	4	130	18,027 04
D. of Col	—	—	1	71	2	74	4,439 17
Virginia	—	—	16	7	4	27	1,778 31
N. Carolina	—	—	32	1	—	33	1,724 82
S. Carolina	—	—	4	—	1	5	625 12
Georgia	2	—	1	—	3	6	2,369 15
Florida	—	—	4	—	—	4	275 53
Alabama	—	—	2	3	—	5	354 62
Mississippi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Louisiana	—	—	15	1	8	24	2,327 05
Tennessee	—	—	—	—	1	1	225 10
Kentucky	—	—	—	—	38	38	8,861 49
Illinois	—	—	4	—	—	3	313 56
Missouri	—	—	—	5	6	11	2,066 04
Ohio	—	—	6	—	15	25	6,035 51
Michigan	—	—	5	3	1	9	1,365 92
Wisconsin	—	—	1	—	—	1	76 39
California	—	—	—	—	1	1	69 69
Total	211	65	5 2	326	233	1,357	298,203 60

UNITED STATES MILITIA.

Statistics of the Militia Force of the United States compiled from the latest returns, together with the number of permanent or fixed Military Posts or Forts, and the number of Arsenals in each state. 1852.

States and Territories	Total No. of Commissioned Officers	Non-Commissioned Officers, Musicians and Privates	Aggregate
Maine	183	62,850	62,588
New-Hampshire	1,348	30.803	32,151
Massachusetts	549	119,141	119,690
Vermont	1,088	22.827	23,915
Rhode Island	78	14.365	14,443
Connecticut	456	51.193	51,649
New-York	7.662	257.631	265,293
New-Jersey	1.988	37,183	39,171
Pennsylvania	7,518	268.552	276,070
Delaware	447	8.782	9,229
Maryland	2.397	44.467	46,864
Virginia	6,494	118.634	125.128
North Carolina	4.267	75.181	79,448
South Carolina	2.591	52,618	55,209
Georgia	3,092	54.220	57,312
Florida	620	11,502	12,122
Alabama	2.832	73,830	76.662
Louisiana	1,392	42,431	43,823
Mississippi	825	35,259	36,084
Tennessee	3,607	67.645	71,252
Kentucky	4.805	77.035	81.840
Ohio	2,051	174.404	176,455
Michigan	2.793	61.145	63,938
Indiana	2,861	51,052	53,918
Illinois	4,618	165,741	170,359
Wisconsin	1,804	30,399	32,203
Iowa	—	—	—
Missouri	3.919	57,081	61.000
Arkansas	1.109	16,028	17.137
Texas	1,248	18,518	19,766
California	—	—	—
Minnesota	7	1,996	2,003
Oregon	—	—	—
Utah	217	2.358	2,575
New-Mexico	—	—	—
Dist. of Columbia	96	1,158	1,248
Total	74,962	2,106,524	2,180,486

UNITED STATES.—Tonnage on 30th June, 1851.

	Tons and 95ths	
The registered vessels employed in the foreign trade on the 30th June, 1851	—	1,726,807 28
The enrolled vessels employed in the coasting trade on the 30th June, 1851	1,854,317 90	
The licensed vessels employed in the coasting trade, under twenty tons, on the 30th June, 1851	45,658 36	1,899,976 28
The enrolled vessels employed in the cod fishery on the 30th June, 1851.	87,475 89	
The enrolled vessels employed in the mackerel fishery on the 30th June, 1851	50,539 03	
The enrolled vessels' employed in the whale fishery, on the 30th June 1851	—	

The licensed vessels, under twenty tons, employed in the cod fishery on the 30th June, 1851........	8,140 88	
		146,155 84
Total..............	—	3,772,439 43
The registered tonnage employed in the whale fishery on the 30th June, 1851..................	181,644 52	
The registered tonnage employed other than in the whale fishery on the 30th June, 1851........	1,544,662 66	
		1,726,307 18
The aggregate amount of the tonnage of the U. S. on the 30th June, 1851.	—	3,772,439 43
Whereof—		
Permanent registered tonnage.............	1,351,193 14	
Temporary registered tonnage.............	375,114 09	
Total registered tonnage		1,726,307 23
Permanent enrolled and licensed tonnage.....	1,979,540 68	
Temporary enrolled and licensed tonnage.....	12,792 18	
Total enrolled and licensed tonnage......		1,992,332 86

Licensed tonnage, under twenty tons, employed in the coasting trade.	45,658 36	
Licensed tonnage, under twenty tons, employed in the cod fishery...	8,140 88	
Total licensed tonnage, under twenty tons...		53,799 24
Total		3,772,439 43
Of the enrolled and licensed tonnage, there were employed in the		
Coasting trade.........	1,854,317 95	
Cod fishery............	87,475 89	
Mackerel fishery.......	50,539 02	
Whale fishery..........	—	
		1,992,332 86
Of the registered tonnage, amounting, as stated above, to 1,726,307 23 tons, there were employed in steam navigation....................	62,390 13	
Of the enrolled licensed tonnage, amounting, as stated above, to 1,992,332 86 tons, there were employed in steam navigation................	521,216 87	
Total tonnage in steam navigation..........		583,607 00

UNITED STATES.—STATEMENT EXHIBITING A CONDENSED VIEW OF THE TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 30TH JUNE, 1851.

District		Total tonnage of each district
Passamaquoddy..	Me.	25,349 38
Machias..........	"	22,876 88
Frenchman's Bay.	"	34 899 86
Penobscot.........	"	40,809 25
Belfast............	"	44,835 22
Bangor............	"	27,571 64
Waldoborough...	"	103,593 51
Wiscasset.........	"	19,718 26
Bath	"	103.793 91
Portland..........	"	97,571 70
Saco..............	"	2,825 88
Kennebunk......	"	11,204 44
York............	"	1,263 66
Portsmouth......	N. H.	25 427 54
Burlington.......	Vt.	8,932 31
Newburyport....	Mass.	26,706 80
Ipswich..........	"	492 55
Gloucester.......	"	23.436 11
Salem............	"	30,498 78
Beverly..........	"	3.948 36
Marblehead......	"	4,351 51
Boston...........	"	342,936 09
Plymouth........	"	10,723 10
Fall River.......	"	12,070 50
New-Bedford.....	"	131,409 46
Barnstable.......	"	72 997 44
Edgartown	"	8.079 19
Nantucket.......	"	26.752 71
Providence.......	R. I.	15,552 55
Bristol...........	"	12.177 63
Newport..........	"	10.320 19
Middletown......	Conn.	12,757 53
New-London.....	"	40,407 67
Stonington.......	"	20 302 51
New-Haven	"	18.302 44
Fairfield.........	"	24.403 00
Champlain.......	N. Y.	4.907 70
Sackett's Harbor.	"	7.1 5 98
Oswego..........	"	26 823 21
Niagara..........	"	615 94
Genesee..........	"	686 01
Oswegatchie......	"	1,985,34
Buffalo Creek....	N. Y.	43,603 18
Sag Harbor......	"	12.808 00
Greenport........	"	7 391 11
New-York........	"	931,193 74
Cape Vincent....	"	2.496 19
Cold Spring......	"	2,604 12
Perth Amboy....	N. J.	22.765 89
Bridgetown.......	"	14 835 07
Burlington.......	"	6 797 05
Camden..........	"	15,663 41
Newark..........	"	5.773 83
Little Egg Harbor.	"	6 639 26
Great Egg Harbor.	"	16.421 79
Philadelphia......	Pa.	222.428 90
Presque Isle.....	"	8,210 35
Pittsburg	"	53,734 34
Wilmington......	Del.	6.816 67
New-Castle	"	5,064 19
Baltimore.........	Md.	160,511 94
Oxford	"	12,636 45
Vienna...........	"	11,469 87
Snow Hill........	"	9.851 59
St. Mary's........	"	2,290 48
Town Creek.....	"	2,124 73
Annapolis........	"	2.659 58
Georgetown......	D. C.	22,903 46
Alexandria	Va.	10,111 87
Norfolk......... .	"	23.661 25
Petersburg.......	"	2,927 41
Richmond	"	6,835 14
Yorktown........	"	5,241 52
Tappahannock...	"	5.659 69
Accomack C. H..	"	4,3 1 78
East River........	"	1.650 84
Yeocomico.......	"	8.388 57
Cherrystone......	"	1.037 16
Wheeling.........	"	3.923 89
Wilmington.....	N. C.	12.387 45
Newbern.........	"	4 891 65
Washington......	"	6,615 58
Edenton..........	"	1.128 08
Camden	"	12,310 52
Beaufort.........	N. C.	2,414 24
Plymouth........	"	2,607 00
Ocracoke........	"	1,428 15
Charleston.......	S. C.	31,910 27
Georgetown......	"	3,277 19
Beaufort.........	"	—
Savannah........	Ga.	22,265 60
Sunbury.........	"	—
Brunswick.......	"	459 67
Hardwick........	"	—
St. Mary's........	"	1,429 57
Pensacola........	Fla.	2,322 79
St. Augustine....	"	—
St. Mark's........	"	281 80
St. John's........	"	309 92
Appalachicola....	"	2,030 36
Key West........	"	4,400 10
Mobile............	Ala.	27,327 01
Pearl River......	Miss.	1,236 21
Vicksburg.......	"	166 48
New-Orleans......	La.	251,900 14
Teche.............	"	1 384 79
Nashville	Tenn.	3.557 67
Louisville........	Ky.	12,937 98
St. Louis.........	Mo.	34,065 46
Chicago..........	Ill.	23.163 45
Cuyahoga........	Ohio	36,070 58
Sandusky........	"	4,858 38
Cincinnati........	"	14,187 18
Miami............	"	3,236 13
Detroit...........	Mich.	40,319 46
Michilimackinac..	"	1,455 40
Galveston........	Texas	3,667 16
Point Isabel......	"	657 49
Saluria	"	586 52
Astoria..........	O'gn	1,063 43
San Francisco....	Cal.	58,063 54
Sonora...........	"	372 43
Milwaukie........	Wis.	2.946 10
		3,772,439 43

STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM UNITED STATES, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1851.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	TOTAL VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS.			
	In American vessels	In foreign vessels	To each country	To the dominion of each power
Russia	$1,187,116	$278,588	$1,465,704	$1,465,704
Prussia	5,152	75,317	80,46	80,469
Sweden and Norway	198, 69	564,531	760,800	821,957
Swedish West Indies	58,924	2,233	61,157	
Denmark	2.913	89,344	92,257	994,944
Danish West Indies	804,909	97,778	902.687	
Hanse Towns	550,542	4,855,414	5,405,956	5 405,956
Holland	711,724	1,199 391	1,911,115	2,567,934
Dutch East Indies	168,226	36.204	204,430	
Dutch West Indies	341,397	25,501	366,898	
Dutch Guiana	85,491	——	85,49	
Belgium	2,335,077	374.316	2,709,393	2,709,393
England	72,200,571	32,921 350	105,121.921	124,223,563
Scotland	2,004.306	1,806,697	3,811,003	
Ireland	203,335	395,353	598,688	
Gibraltar	91,616	86,288	77.904	
Malta	60.261	3,800	64,061	
British East Indies	451,670	58,236	512,9[illegible]	
Cape of Good Hope	158,666	3,225	161,891	
Mauritius	——	16,882	16,88	
Honduras	190,507	23,299	213,806	
British Guiana	384,266	156.288	540,554	
British West Indies	2,292,523	1,650,637	3,943,560	
Canada	3,585.671	2,250.263	5,835,834	
British American Colonies	492.627	2,731 926	3,224,553	
France on the Atlantic	23,864,292	702.775	24,567,067	25,660,925
France on the Mediterranean	588,172	146,846	735,018	
French West Indies	217,319	72,260	289,579	
Miquelon and other French Fisheries	3,715	——	3,715	
French Guiana	45,693	——	45,693	
Bourbon	16,607	3,246	19,853	
Spain on the Atlantic	759,853	198,860	958,713	11,755,814
Spain on the Mediterranean	87,638	4,369,693	4,457,331	
Teneriffe and other Canaries	8,765	4,775	13,540	
Manilla and Philippine Islands	125.544	——	125,544	
Cuba	5,039,718	199,558	5,239.276	
Other Spanish West Indies	861.286	100 124	961,410	
Portugal	83,945	83,397	167,342	339,647
Madeira	68,474	26,115	94,589	
Fayal and other Azores	15,411	4,829	20,240	
Cape de Verd Islands	57,476	——	57,476	
Italy generally	906,791	830,043	1,736,834	1,736,834
Sicily	3,305	38,438	41,743	41,743
Sardinia	136,361	174.527	310,888	310,888
Trieste and other Austrian Adriatic ports	1,465,822	799,751	2,265,573	2,265,573
Turkey, Levant, &c	162,204	——	162,204	162,204
Hayti	1,380 447	298,925	1,679 372	1,679,372
Mexico	916,173	98,517	1,014.690	1,014,690
Central Republic of America	217,691	5,611	223.302	223,302
New Grenada	2,413,568	94,133	2,507,701	2,507,701
Venezuela	757,003	97,776	854,779	854,779
Brazil	2,841,983	286,973	3,128,956	3,128,956
Cisplatine Republic	25,804	6.907	32,711	32,711
Argentine Republic	463,535	196.317	659,852	659,852
Chili	1,581.798	27,079	1,608.877	1,608,877
Peru	186,320	63,440	249,760	249,760
China	2,111,029	44,916	2,155.945	2,155,945
West Indies generally	68,761	8,175	76,936	76,936
South America generally	36,196	——	36,196	36,196
Asia generally	70,586	——	70,586	70,586
Africa generally	1,175,049	70,312	1,245,361	1,245,361
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	601,146	——	601,146	601,146
Total	$137,934,539	$58,755,179	$196,689,718	$196,689,718

CANADIAN COMMERCE.

FOREIGN TRADE OF CANADA—IMPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN AND UNITED STATES.

	Great Britain	U. States
Coffee, green and other kinds	$4,384	$115,772
Sugar, refined and other kinds	146,548	276,892
Molasses	2,812	24,072
Tea	84,764	949,968
Tobacco, unmanufactured	759	59,935
Do., manufactured	1,799	377,916
Salt	21,063	87,517
Horses, (duty 20 per cent)	..	14,392
Cheese	2,996	17,208
Salt meat	89	4,756
Fur	55,352	46,218
Glass	49,548	39,492
Leather, tanned	47,292	142,091
Oil	112,160	77,960
Paper	58,976	48,304
Books (free)	62,980	220,111
Dried fruit	34,720	53,823
Cotton manufactures	2,965,168	938,720
Leather do.	34,168	159,708
India rubber	166	70,584
Iron and hardware	1,267,608	478,986
Machinery	6,862	161,100
Linen	409,852	44,792
Silk	627,644	14,408
Wool	2,365,348	542,372
Coals	97,994	73,054
Hide	764	905,114
Flax, hemp and tow	45,576	21,074
Tallow	4,818	128,249
Horses, (free)	796	27,278
Cotton wool	684	24,484
Carriages	..	23,069
Coin and bullion	10,140	428,792
Settlers' goods	16,564	123,597
Wheat	472	294,484

EXPORTED FROM CANADA IN 1851.

Mineral, Marine and Forest Productions—	Great Britain	U. States
Copper	$95,360	$60,372
Lead	31,616	63,784
Ashes	783,940	54,216
Number, &c	3,904,836	1,096,116
Agricultural Productions—		
Horses	200	212,572
Cows	40	114,992
Butter	145,603	56,208
Wool	—	79,836
Eggs	—	52,812
Other articles	24,924	50,264
Wheat	142,512	456,958
Flour	896,848	1,159,140
Barley and rye	—	85,760
Beans and peas	37,116	49,764
Oats	—	131,538
Other articles	22,388	62,032
Manufactures	316	45,664
Other articles, not enumerated	5,260	28,032

In 1849 the exports from the United States to Canada, were $4,971,420; in 1850, $6,544,860, and in 1851, $8,365,764. The total imports in 1851, chiefly from Great Britain and the United States, were $21,436,780, and the total exports, chiefly to Great Britain and the United States, were $13,810,604.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—SUPPLY OF COAL FOR LOUISIANA.

Some time ago, Hamilton Smith, of Kentucky, prepared for our pages a paper upon this interesting subject, addressing it to Maunsel White, of New-Orleans. By some means or other the paper never reached our possession until it had appeared in another quarter. We were, therefore, not anxious about its publication, and let it lie upon the table subject to call. As the subject, however, is still fresh in interest, and as perhaps some movement will be made in it the coming winter, we conclude to present it in full to our readers. It is certainly a great matter if coal can be furnished to our planters at from 25 to 35 cents per barrel, and the kind in question has been proved by an intelligent planter to be unsurpassed for every other purpose than the blacksmith's shop.—(ED.)

"Thus far, shipments of coal from the Ohio river have very often been attended with heavy losses, and have rarely resulted in such profits as would justify the investment of capital in the business. The demand has been uncertain, and the expenses and risks have been enormous.

With the present means of transportation, the costs of coals from the Monongahela at your city levee, or at the shore of the plantation, averages full forty cents the barrel. From Cannelton, Rose Harbor and Caseyville, the cost has averaged about thirty cents the bushel. The cost of the Upper Ohio coals cannot be reduced to any extent, if at all. Indeed, the probabilities are that this cost will be increased. Above Louisville, the river will allow the transportation of coals only for a few months in the spring and fall, and, in the opinion of our coal merchants here, the flatboats can never be superseded, for this purpose, by any other means of conveyance.

By the use of other and better instruments, and the adoption of the methods that have obtained in England, for many years, the cost of the lower Ohio coal could be reduced full one-third, and perhaps even lower. But these instruments are costly, and the business, to be profitable, must be carried on largely, continuously, and with the utmost economy. The capital required would be at least $100,000, and no individual or company could safely make such an outlay without first securing a market at certain times, places and prices. There may be now a sufficient demand, but there must be needful arrangements between the producers and consumers.

The New-Orleans consumption of Ohio river coals, (including the tributaries of the Ohio,) is stated to be 3,500,000 bushels yearly, and increasing at the rate of from twenty to thirty per cent. The consumption at the sugar plantations is now very limited. You, better than I, can estimate what it would be, if the supply was certain, and at reduced prices. I understand that three cords of wood, in addition to the ordinary supply of bagasse, are required to make a hogshead of sugar. We reckon ten bushels of coal, properly used, as fully equal in evaporative power to a cord of our dry wood. Your wood is said to be inferior to ours.

Without any means of making an accurate calculation, I suppose that, for the next five years, the plantations in your state that can be reached by coal boats, will produce an average of 200,000 hogsheads yearly. At ten cents the bushel for coals—equal to less than $1 the cord for wood—the former would probably soon supersede the latter on these plantations, and there would arise a demand for 6,000,000 bushels yearly.

If the sugar planters find it good policy to refine their sugars, and retain the waste and the profits of their refinement, the demand for coals would be largely increased. The sugar refineries at New-York and Boston pay from $5 to $6,50 per ton for coals. Those at Cincinnati and St. Louis pay about $2,50. You may obtain it, when you and your neighbors choose to give us the needful assistance, at less than $3 per ton. It seems to me that this condensation and refinement of your sugars on the plantation, and by the use of our cheap fuel, will give you a great advantage over foreign producers, who cannot get fuel at these low prices. The saving of carriage on the waste, and the cost of double packing, would be equal to a handsome profit. Besides, your finished product need not then be taken out of the nearest line between the producer and consumer. Most of our western merchants are now supplied by New-York, Boston and St. Louis. If you will complete the process, you or we, shall save at least our freight or commission, and something on interest and insurance.

If such should be your movement, and if we of the lower Ohio are the only parties who can largely reduce the price of your fuel, there is every reason why we should soon begin to act in concert and aid each other. Although we are aware that our coal business must increase with wonderful rapidity, we dare not now risk the fluctuations in your markets without preliminary arrangements. We care not to fall into the hands of your city speculators and monopolists.

You, the consumers of coals, are now paying on the average not less, perhaps, than fifty-five cents the barrel. You have no assurance in the summer that you can get a winter's supply at $1,00 the barrel, and therefore lay in your full stock of wood. Now, if you can organize an association of consumers, who will agree to take a certain and large quantity of our coals at not over thirty-five cents the barrel, we can, beyond question, take immediate measures to furnish a full supply for the next season. If you will furnish the necessary capital at your legal rate of interest, with the security that the coal lands and instruments and quantity of the producers would afford, you could obtain the supply as low, probably, as twenty-five cents the barrel. If you would form an association to purchase the lands and instruments and then rent both to responsible lessees, you could, as I think, be furnished with stipulated quantities at less than twenty cents the barrel. If this result can be obtained, the *modus operandi* is entitled to the earnest consideration of your citizens and planters.

Those who are not familiar with the means used for moving coals in England, cannot but wonder at the low prices at which they are sold. They are taken from seams averaging less than three feet in thickness, at many hundreds of feet "under the grass," with the expenditure of hundreds of thousands of dollars in shafts, engines and rail-roads; pay a high rent to the land-owners; are then often taken on rail-roads to the barges, and by these to vessels on tide-water. Cheap labor and capital have far less influence in producing low prices, than labor and capital-saving instruments and systematic arrangements. You can adopt, and perhaps improve the roads, "staiths," barges, steam-tugs, &c., now used there. For $200,000 you can buy 5,000 acres of accessible coal land on the Tread-water and Saline rivers, and prepare all the instruments needed for a supply of four millions of bushels yearly. The same quantity of coals in the mines of Northumberland or Lancaster, that could be had from these 5,000 acres, and the instruments required for moving these English coals from their native bed to tide-water, would cost some millions of pounds sterling. The difference in the amount of labor required in working the respective mines, and in your favor, would be more than an equivalent to the difference in the price of labor and capital against you. The average cost of coals in England at the points of consumption, is about eleven cents the bushel. You can get coals of an equivalent quality at ten, and probably eight cents the bushel, and without any reduction in the rates of home labor and capital.

There is a very prevalent opinion in your markets that our open burning coals are worth less than the caking coals of Pittsburgh. The difference in value is variously estimated at from five to twenty-five per cent. You and others who have carefully used both, know that this opinion is the result of interest or ignorance—ours has more evaporative power than that of Pittsburgh. The very qualities that make the latter superior for blacksmith purposes—that is, the making of a hollow fire—depreciate it for the evaporation of water. Each kind requires a different treatment. Your consumers were first supplied with the caking coal, and fitted all their apparatus for its use—with the same apparatus they could not use the anthracite coals at all; and with the same reason that they condemn ours, might, as did once the Philadelphians, declare that the anthracite coals would never be burned until the last conflagration. Professor Johnson, however, fixes very nearly the relative values of the several kinds, and experience will teach your consumers how best to manage each. I may remark here that the number of seams of coal on the lower margin of the Illinois coal basin, is now estimated by some as high as eighteen, and probably contain most of the varieties of the cannel, open, burning and caking at the mines of Chamberlin and Caldwell, six miles up the Saline river; and only three miles from the Ohio, six strata have been discovered,—three above high water and three below,—one of the upper being five and a half feet thick, and in all twenty-eight and a half feet thick. Over one million of bushels can be taken out of every acre of this land. As to convenience, quality, and quantity, there are, perhaps, no coal mines in the world equal to these. What is of more importance to you, they are accessible to your sugar planters for eight or nine months of the year. From that point, as I apprehend, the supply of coals is to be obtained, not only for your market, but for the ports on the Gulf of Mexico, and as Lieut. Maury thinks, for the Isthmus ports on the Pacific. Our Cannelton coals will be required by passing boats and by home manufacturers. We have a site above overflow, and perfectly healthy. In these respects, we have the advantage of our rivals on the Saline, Big Muddy and Treadwater. We have a further advantage in the "dip" of our strata towards the river, which saves us the entire expense of drainage. These advantages may, for some years, make up for the additional distance of two hundred miles from your market.

In concluding this hasty letter, allow me to request you to exchange views with your sugar-planting friends on this subject, and if you should agree with me that our coals are all important to you, we may be able to adopt some plan by which they shall be sent to your plantations at a low cost.

Very truly your friend and obedient servant,

HAMILTON SMITH."

Note.—Since writing the foregoing letter, Mr. P. Chamberlain has handed me the following estimate of the cost of delivering coal from the Saline and Treadwater, at the sugar plantations on the river. The estimate was prepared by him and Mr. H. L. L. Casey, who has been engaged in the coal business at the Treadwater from its commencement.

2.—HISTORY AND USES OF GUANO—ITS MANAGEMENT, AND HOW FAR APPLICABLE TO THE SOUTH.

The following admirable letter from the Hon. A. Davis, of Maryland, was communicated to the Honbls. W. Brooke and J. D. Freeman, of Miss., with permission to publish.

"Guano is the deposit of innumerable sea fowl, and some amphibious animals whose food consists almost entirely of marine shells and fish, chiefly upon islands in the South Pacific ocean. It has been preserved in its greatest purity near the Peruvian coast, from the remarkable phenomena of the most total absence of rain or moisture, both coastwise and inland, in a considerable portion of that country. Other guanos have been found south of Peru; and, recently, a Mexican guano has been introduced into the port of Baltimore, but whether from the Pacific or Gulf coast I have not learned. All of these—the Chilian, Patagonian, and Mexican—have been pronounced by chemists (and experiment, so far as my observation extends, confirms the correctness of the opinion) inferior to the Peruvian, doubtless owing to the presence of rain and moisture in all those countries, which is almost, as before stated, totally unknown upon the coast of Peru.

Its use in Peru as a manure has been long known; but its application is immediately followed by *irrigation*, which is necessary in that hot and arid country for the development of its fertilizing power. Its introduction into England and the United States is of very recent date. The first cargo imported into Baltimore—it being, I believe, the first in the United States—was in the year 1844. It was at first used with caution and in very limited quantities, from the twofold reason of, first, its high cost, and, secondly, the doubt with practical farmers of the possibility of so small a quantity of "dust" exerting such wonderful power upon vegetation as it was represented to do.

I believe the honorable Senator Pearce, of Kent county, Col. Capron, of Laurel, Prince George's county, and Edward Stabler, of Sandy Spring, in this (Montgomery) county, have the honor of being the first, or among the first, in this state, to give the result of their experiments to the public. These will be found in the first volume of the Farmer's Library, and the first volume, new series, of the American Farmer, and are interesting as well for the general success of the first application of guano, as for the failure or transient benefit in some of the experiments then made. The failure then, as well as the failure of similar experiments since made, is now well understood to result from a *too superficial* application of the guano,

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Estimate of expenses of one trip of a steam-tug of 400 tons, of a capacity for towing eight flatboats with 75,000 bushels of coal. The time occupied should be about 20 days—one month is allowed.

1 pilot and assistant	$150	Incidental expenses—highest estimate	$315
2 engineers and assistants	150		
18 firemen and deck hands	360		
Captain	75	Cost of one trip	$2,000
Mate and carpenter	40	Eight trips the year	16,000
Cook and cabin boy	40	Cost of 600.000 bushels on board, at 4c., including cost of flatboats	24,000
8,000 bushels coal, cost on board 3c	240		
Wood for kindling	50		
Provisions	200		
Wear and tear of boats and lines	250	Cost of 600,000 bushels at plantations, 6⅔c. per bushel, or 16⅔c. per bbl	$40,000
Insurance	60		

The receipts for upward freight estimated equal to interest on capital.

This estimate is, probably, high enough if the business was well managed. The substitution of barges for flatboats would considerably lessen the cost. Mr. Lamb, who delivered stone from our Cannelton quarries, at the United States Navy Yard, Memphis. tried each method, and the result was a large saving by using the steamboat and barges. This method is now adopted by the proprietors of the Pomeroy mines, in supplying Cincinnati, and I understand to-day, that a company has been formed to transport coals from the Monongahela to Cincinnati in the same manner.

The obtaining of a cheap and certain supply of coals on the Mississippi River, is now seen to be a matter of the utmost importance to your city, from which trade is now attracted by the eastern cities, through their new channels of communication with this valley. The freights to and from your city must be reduced, or you may lose the best part of your business. Is there any way by which these freights can be largely reduced, other than by the substitution of coals for wood for river steamboats, and a reduction of price in the cost of your coals for steamships?

Moisture here, as well as *moisture* in Peru, has been found by experience necessary to its full development. This is obtained here by burying the guano with the plow, several inches below the surface of the soil, and beyond the influence of the sun and drying winds to which our climate is subject. Some judicious practical farmers say eight or ten inches is not too deep, though I have no practical experience myself in so great a depth. I am confident that a depth of less than four inches in our climate, for a summer crop, will hazard the expected benefit from its use.

Since the successful experiment of Mr. Stabler upon his single acre of wheat, detailed in his letter of September, 1845, already referred to, from the application of the previous autumn, the use of guano has steadily and rapidly increased in this county, as well as in the lower and tide-water counties, both on the eastern and western shore of the Chesapeake, and it has also rapidly extended into the state of Virginia. From a single cargo in 1844, and but two or three in 1845, brought into the port of Baltimore, such has been the popularity of, and growing demand for, this wonderful manure, that during the year 1851—a period of only seven years from its first introduction—the import into the same port had run up to the large quantity of 25,000 tons, which was all sold at the high price of $46 to $48 per legal ton from the vessel. In this county—with a population of less than 16,000 souls—from the small experiment already referred to, and one or two others not given to the public, last year at least 1,500 tons, at a cost of $75,000, were bought by our farmers. The result has been, an increase since 1845 of at least two hundred per cent, upon the wheat crop—the crop to which it is chiefly applied. Upon old worn-out land, long considered worthless, the effect has in many instances been magical, frequently producing from twenty to twenty-five bushels of wheat from a single application of 250 lbs. per acre, where not a return for the seed sown could have been expected before. The usual mode of application is to separate the fine guano from the lumps with a sieve or riddle, (a plasterer's riddle is a convenient implement ;) then with a watering pot, with a rose to it, moisten the mass sufficiently to prevent the dust from flying. The lumps can easily be produced with a maul or hammer, if left in mass for a day or two, after being pretty freely watered. Then sow the guano with the hand (the ground of course being first prepared) *pari passu* with the wheat, at the rate of from two to three hundred pounds per acre, and both plowed in together three or four inches deep, with a shovel plow, or a long-toothed cultivator. To obtain the above quantity with sufficient precision, I lay off my ground in lands of seven strides, or twenty-one feet, passing up and down on either side, at a moderate pace, and finishing in the middle, with a handful at each cast. Some prefer before sowing to mix a peck or more of plaster of Paris with each bag of guano, [the bags averaging about 160 lbs.,] and think its action both improved and prolonged. The experiment is worthy of trial, though I have succeeded satisfactorily without, not having the plaster at hand.

Besides the wheat crop, guano has been successfully applied to corn, rye, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and garden vegetables, and also tobacco. Although it gives a vigorous growth to the latter crop, yet it imparts a coarse texture, unfavorable to the long-established reputation of our fine silky Maryland tobacco. Corn and potatoes being gross feeders and of quick growth, require a larger supply than wheat, say from three to four hundred pounds per acre, turned under with the large two or three horse plow, unless combined with other manures, except lime and ashes, both of which seem to be unfriendly to some of the valuable salts contained in guano. But with bone-dust, barn-yard and stable manure, it acts promptly and powerfully. The finest crop of wheat I ever made was from a dressing of guano and bone-dust, and the finest crop of timothy I ever saw was from a like combination.

Various opinions exist as to the durability of guano as a manure. Some farmers claim for it an influence through a whole course or rotation of crops, while others insist they can see no benefit beyond the first crop to which it is applied. It would seem to be unreasonable to expect long-continued or permanent benefit from so slight a dressing as from two to three hundred pounds of manure per acre, after so prompt and large a return as guano always gives, when judiciously applied, from the first crop. Yet I am quite confident that I have seen a marked influence upon the second crop of clover in the third season after its application to the wheat crop. Something, however, is certainly due to the character of the soil to which it is applied. Upon moist, compact clays, it not only acts more powerfully, but its influence is longer seen; while upon light, sandy soils it gives a less return, and its after-benefit is sooner exhausted. Upon limestone land, with which I have no experience, it is said not to act so well--perhaps from the same cause which renders freshly-limed land unfriendly to its action.

I have thus, at some length, and I fear tediously, given you an account of the source whence obtained, the use and mode of application, and, as the best evidence of its value, the growing demand and popularity among our farmers—a body of shrewd, practical, intelligent men, industrious and economical in their habits, and little disposed to waste money upon useless or doubtful objects.

As before stated, the original source of supply of the best guano is the coast of Peru. It is owned by the government, and let to contractors, who pay a bonus per ton for the privilege of digging it and sending it abroad for sale. These contractors reside in Callao, and sell it here through the agency of commission houses. Up to the present year, there have been two agents in this country for the sale of Peruvian guano—one in New-York and one in Baltimore, where by far the largest quantity [or upon the Chesapeake and its tributaries] has been disposed of. The agents prefer to sell it by the cargo or in large lots; and it is eagerly bought up by dealers who retail it at a profit corresponding with the supply in market. I have known this profit at periods of scarcity, without any advance upon the import price, to run up to the handsome sum of $15 per ton, or 36 per cent. advance. It is now, at a period of great abundance in market and considerable competition among dealers, retailing at about 12 per cent. profit upon the import price, which is now fixed by the present, and, as I understand, sole agent in the United States—Mr. Riley, of New-York—at the following rates:

For 50 tons, of 2,240 lbs. per ton	$48 00
" 100 " of " "	47 00
" 300 " of " "	46 00

at four months, or a discount of 2½ per cent. for cash, which is equivalent to 7 per cent., the legal rate of interest in New-York. Thus the farmers who cannot conveniently unite upon so large a quantity as 300 tons, will have to pay from 2 to 4 per cent. more than the dealers, if bought directly from the agent or importer, or from 12 to 36 per cent. if they rely alone upon the dealers.

In all instances, where practicable, although at some disadvantage, I would advise that purchases be made directly from the importer. It is not only cheaper but safer to do so. Some of the dealers advertise *Patagonian* as well as Peruvian guano; and now Mexican is also introduced. In this state of things, when one kind is in high request and another dull of sale, the temptation is strong to mix the inferior with the superior, or otherwise to adulterate the Peruvian, the better quality. This, unfortunately, can be carried on to a considerable extent without detection, until it is too late or too troublesome to obtain redress for the fraud. The inspection in this State affords no protection against adulteration; it is rather a protection to fraud—a burden without a benefit. I do not wish to be understood as charging fraudulent sales upon any of our dealers in guano. Having always myself purchased directly from the importer, I have no reason to do so. My object is only to point out the course of the trade, and the advantages and disadvantages which attend it. I know no reason, however, why dealers in guano should be supposed to be less liable to temptation, or possess a higher degree of morality, than dealers in drugs, who have been charged before Congress with extensive adulteration of articles intended to "cure the ills which flesh is heir to"--a degree of cupidity and fraud which should be punished with the severest penalty the law can inflict. Whether it is in the power of Congress to protect the humble cultivators of the soil from a like imposition, is a question which I leave for you and General Freeman, and your honorable coadjutors, to decide.

What the cost of guano would be, landed at "Mobile or New-Orleans," I have not the means of knowing, with the present arrangement of the "sole depot" in the city of New-York. The price in New-York having been already shown, to that will have to be added freight, insurance, and whatever port duties may be charged in the southern cities. The freight from Baltimore to the Southern cities upon the Potomac and James rivers has ranged from 75 cents to $1 per ton; sometimes higher even than the latter sum. Insurance one-half per cent.; effecting same from one quarter to one half per cent. From these data, General Freeman's better acquaintance with the charges between New-York and the South will enable him to form a pretty correct opinion of the cost of the article in Mobile or New-Orleans.

3.—JACQUE'S FUNERAL.—A PLANTATION SCENE.

> "The earliest summon'd and the longest spared,
> Are here deposited with tribute paid
> Various; but unto each a tribute paid."

We insert from the *Southern Matron* a picture, executed with the exquisite touches of Caroline Gilman, which will be familiar to many of our readers:—

Let me pause to bestow a parting notice on one who is still associated with the happiest and tenderest scenes of my youth. Jacque's labors, as is customary with aged slaves, had been gradually suspended. He still performed a few voluntary duties, and might be seen on sunshiny days propping up a failing fence, clearing an encumbered hedge, drying nets, making baskets of rushes or oak, attending to his pigs and poultry, or, with a characteristic eye to his master's interests, tottering to the fields, and shaking his head if he detected any symptom of waste. Still retaining a feeling of authority, he was angered by idleness; even the young negroes, whose greatest toil was to turn somersets, and dance to their own whistling, tried to look busy or grave when his eye was on them, long after his corporeal and mental powers had ceased their activity. But the time drew near when old Jacque must die. It was in vain that mamma gave him her personal attendance, sent him daily luxuries, and anticipated his wants with almost filial tenderness; the golden cord of his life was loosened, and we were told one morning he had died, breathing a prayer for his master's family.

Mamma had asked him, many years before, if there was any thing she could do for his comfort.

"Tank you much, my missis," he answered; "Jacque hab everyting him want in dis world, 'cept de shroud, praise God."

Mamma gave him money, and he expended it on grave-clothes. He had taken them out and aired them from year to year; now they were, indeed, to enfold his venerable remains; and we were a mourning family; true, we were not clad in weeds, but a tender tie had been riven, and it was riven with tears. None but those who live under our peculiar institutions can imagine the strong bond existing between faithful servants and the families with whom they are connected.

I was informed by Maum Nanny, Jacque's sister, that he had left something for me in the *sill* of his chest, as his dying bequest. An old pocket-book was found there, which I opened, and discovered several bills of continental money, carefully wrapped in paper.*

Plantation negroes prefer to bury their dead at night, or before sunrise. Neighboring plantations are notified, and all who can obtain tickets from overseers attend. A spot of ground is allotted for their burial-place, and simple monuments of affection may usually be found in them. The ceremony of interment is commonly performed by a class-leader, a pious colored man, who is the spiritual teacher of the neighborhood, and prepares his brethren, by an examination into their belief, and a watch over their conduct and feelings, for communion.

The "pomp and circumstance" of the burial, for it is not less among slaves, in proportion, than in palaces, delayed the funeral until midnight. As the visitors assembled, they crowded the hut of the deceased, and when that was full, stood around the entrance near the coffin. At short intervals, some among the group commenced a hymn, in which all joined; refreshments were then decorously distributed.*

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* It may scarcely be necessary to repeat that this incident and others in the "Southern Matron," like those in the Northern Housekeeper, are founded in truth.

The death of Jacque had been particularly affecting to me, for I had been his especial favorite. I went with the boys to see him after his decease; and though I did not feel the faintness that came over me at witnessing the remains of grandmamma, yet I had that dizzy sensation which youth often experiences at the immense difference between a bright intellectual glance and the glazed eye or moveless lid, between the warm touch of affection, and the stiff, cold hand that returns no pressure.

The night of his interment was mild, and I sat at my window by the starlight, watching the approach of the negroes as they crossed the fields, or came through the avenue. Torches were seen glowing in the range of whitewashed huts, and a bush-light† was flaming near Jacque's habitation, which was so brilliant that I perceived the coffin and the groups gathering round it; while occasionally strains of their hymn came floating with a softened cadence on the breeze. The procession was formed: six women, dressed in white, preceded the coffin, and the pall-bearers, bearing torches, were on each side. Their path lay near the house, and nothing was to be heard but an occasional ejaculation of "Lord Jesus!" "He knows!" "God have mercy!" "His will be done!"

The burial place was near the river, and a huge oak threw its arms over it, as if protecting the dwelling of the dead. I could see them as they wound down the slope and stood in a circle round the grave, distance still softening their sacred song. It was one which I had heard from infancy in their devotional exercises, but never had it touched my feelings as now, when it rose over poor Jacque's last dwelling-place. The leader spoke; at first his voice was low, then, rising to that declamatory shout which often carries the feelings captive, it reached me where I sat. He described the tomb of Lazarus, and said that Jesus wept, and that they might weep, for a good brother was gone, and there was no Jesus by his grave to bring him back; he dwelt on the character of Jacque, and on their duty in imitating his example; told them to be grateful for their religious blessings, for, while the heathen were in darkness, a great light had shone upon them; dwelt long on their sinfulness and God's anger, and taxed his imagination to paint the torments of hell, unless they repented and accepted the gospel.

Familiarity with his dialect prevented, with me, all that might have been ludicrous to a stranger. He prayed for his master and mistress, that God might reward them for all their goodness to brother Jacque. "Oh Lord Jesus," he cried, "bless my young maussas. Gie 'em good counsel, and let 'em drink of de water of life, and bless my young missis; may she know de Lord dat bought her, and may she bring her alabaster box of ointment and pour it out for the love of her maussa, Christ."

As these words reached me, I could not restrain my tears; I laid my head on the window-sill, and sobbed aloud. Another hymn was sung. The words of Watts, the sweet singer of the Christian Israel, whose tender notes fall like gentle dew on the heart of monarch and slave, rose in the quiet midnight under that starry heaven.

"Why do we mourn departing friends,
Or shake at death's alarms?
'Tis but the voice that Jesus sends,
To call them to his arms."

As they ceased, the waving lights passed away. I was again alone with night in its silent beauty. I threw myself on my bed: the sounds still vibrating on my memory; and, as my eyes closed in sleep, a vision of the mansion whither the spirit of Jacque had risen, came before me, and I heard cherub voices welcome him to his heavenly home.

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* This solemnity is usually styled by the negroes "a setting up." When a funeral occurs at too great a distance from the city to procure tea, coffee, &c., or the owners do not provide them, the body is interred, and the friends afterward celebrate what is called a "false burying," where religious ceremonies are performed, and refreshments provided.

† A fire of light wood kindled on a small mound of earth.

A plain marble slab may be seen at Roseland, on which is inscribed,

Sacred
To the Memory of
JACQUE,
A faithful slave,
His master bears this testimony to his worth.*

4.—TEXAS—HER SOIL, CLIMATE AND PRODUCTS.

We have published in the Review already as much as a whole volume upon the statistics, resources, &c., of Texas, and the inducements it holds out to settlers. All of this material will be found in our New Series of three large volumes. At present we add an extract from the *Austin Gazette*, which is very valuable. Will not some one there give us an able paper upon the history of the Territory, Republic, and State of Texas?

All the cereal grains are produced here in great perfection and abundance. The average yield of corn is about forty bushels per acre, and is planted about the first of March, and is in roasting ear the first of June. Corn for the last six years has throughout Western Texas, borne a high price, owing to the demand created by the wants of the army on the frontier, and emigration; but it is confidently predicted that the abundance of the growing crop, and the very considerable increase in its cultivation, will reduce the price for the next year.

A belt of land about a hundred miles wide, bordering on the coast, is the sugar-growing region of Texas, although cotton forms the principal product, not because it is more profitable, but because of the large outlay of capital required in the manufacture of sugar; in fact cotton requires more labor in its growth, is subject to more disastrous contingencies in this region than sugar, and where the portage is not too great, is less profitable. In this section corn, millet, oats, potatoes, pumpkins, and every species of pulse grow freely. All manner of garden vegetables grow to great perfection. Peaches, figs and pomegranates are reared with little trouble, and the fruit is abundant and of fine flavor; oranges are sometimes raised, but the climate is not adapted to their growth. Several varieties of indigenous grapes are found, from which a palatable wine is made, and the pecan nut is here everywhere abundant. Melons of all sorts attain great size and richness of flavor. This region is well adapted to stock-raising, although the country farther west is better, and the more elevated country above better suited to raising sheep, horses and mules, where there is better water, less mud, and fewer flies and mosquitoes.

The country here is everywhere flat, presenting to the eye little diversity of scenery, except that of woods and prairies, the latter of vast extent, a perpetual common for pasturage, the only productive land being that upon the streams and in their neighborhood. Springs fit for use are nowhere found, and the water of the streams and wells is bad; the use of cistern water is becoming general.

This is peculiarly the country for large planters; persons of limited means cannot in this region engage in agricultural pursuits with a prospect of success. Here, though, as well as everywhere else in Texas, capable and industrious mechanics do well.

The country lying above this belt, although diversified in its appearance and adaptabilities, may still be treated of together. This is the proper cotton and grain-growing portion of Texas, besides which it may be safely assumed that at some future day its mineral productions will be found vastly important. Everywhere upon the surface of the earth we see unmistakable evidence, of the presence of rich ores, but, as yet, no attempt has been made to work them, nor, indeed, has there been any reliable examination made into the subject. Cotton, though yielding less heavily here than below, is more certain, and one year with another, we have little doubt will produce more. The great distance, however, from market, and the entire absence of any facilities for transportation beyond the ox-cart, renders its production limited. The face of the country is rolling, and in many places rugged and broken, veined everywhere with beautiful streams of limpid water, and abounding with springs.

Wheat, corn, and all the cereals grow finely, and are in no degree inferior, we are told, to the produce of the regions of the northwest. With the exception of the more tropical productions of the lower country, all which grow there are found here, and in addition, apples and pears do well; and a still greater variety of the grape is found here, some of them fine table fruit; and which, we have no doubt, would be much improved by cultivation.

There is a vast amount of valuable land lying uncultivated, and which the emigrant can obtain at a price of which he cannot complain. In a large portion of the state, building timber is scarce, but this is more than compensated by the presence, in all this region, of fine stone for the purpose. It has been well ascertained by experiments that this portion

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[*] A similar monument is on a small plantation a few miles from Charleston.

of the state is well suited to sheep raising, the fine breeds which have been introduced into the country neither deteriorating in size nor the quantity or fineness in their fleece.

The climate may be regarded as emphatically healthy, disease being less frequent and less severe than almost any other part of the world where there is so much individual exposure, and such general disregard to all sanatory laws.

5.—LAND DONATED BY GOVERNMENT TO THE STATES.

The Hon. Mr. Snow, of New-York, in his speech in Congress, gives the following table:

"I submit a statement of the amount of land already donated to the states and territories:

	Acres.		Acres.
Ohio	2,273,858,77	Florida	2,022,993,00
Indiana	3,267,460,61	Iowa	2,713,955,22
Illinois	5,584,167,94	Wisconsin	3,128,799,00
Missouri	3,242,627.00	Tennessee	3,353,824,00
Alabama	2,094,284,00	California	500,000,00
Mississippi	4,151,011,00	Minnesota Territory	2,997,191,00
Louisiana	10,210,122,58	Oregon Territory	12,186,978,00
Michigan	6,170,866,00	New Mexico	7,493,120,00
Arkansas	6,250,813,00	Utah	6,681,707,00
		Total	84,222,184,12

"By which it will be noticed that the liberality of the government is not to be questioned, the government having sold only one hundred and one million acres; showing that almost as much has been donated as has been sold."

6.—DEBTS, REVENUES, EXPENDITURES, ETC., OF THE STATES.

Debts of the several states, showing the direct and the contingent debt. Also, the annual receipts and expenditures—with the last valuations:

	Absolute debt.	Contingent.	Total.	Int. paid, by State.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
Maine	878,250	—	878,250	66,000	525,688	604,726
Massachusetts	1,085,500	4,049,564	5,135,064	58,888	510,658	601,604
N. Hampshire	—	24,842	24,842	—	109,728	90,000
Vermont	58,036	—	58,036	3,000	125,374	109,872
Rhode Island	41,000	192,719	233,719	2,464	71,183	80,818
Connecticut	—	33,112	33,112	850	80,000	75,000
New-York	22,530,802	933,036	23,463,836	1,214.992	767,962	826,720
New-Jersey	37,000	—	37,000	2,200	128,563	125,542
Pennsylvania	40,677,214	—	40,677,216	2,004,714	4,438,131	4,265,329
Maryland	15,546,192	—	15,546,192	690,866	1,213,104	1,209,340
Virginia	13,668,051	3,917,894	17,615,951	490,000	856,937	824,199
N. Carolina	786,500	190,500	977,000	45,000	96,000	140,000
S. Carolina	2,061,292	—	2,061.292	120,000	600,293	531,864
Georgia	1,828,172	189,680	2,018,162	121,270	310,270	349,400
Florida	3,900,000	1,916,000	396,000	234,000	56,382	59,259
Alabama	6,693,888	1,915,381	8,609,269	471,507	597,424	471,673
Mississippi	2,271,707	5,500,000	7,771,707	110,000	358,617	139,957
Louisiana	1,918,397	14,227,380	16,145.777	98,000	1,091,040	1,064,865
Texas	6,818,798	—	6.818,798	400,000	128,946	77,268
Arkansas	3,697,112	—	3,697,112	220,000	495,194	433,976
Tennessee	2,977,000	—	—	150,000	374,660	369,521
Kentucky	4,247,637	250,000	4,497 631	248,999	596,602	522,254
Ohio	18,744,654	—	18,744,654	1,051,053	8,092,993	2,960,927
Michigan	2,374,733	333.359	2,708,092	142,440	429,268	449 355
Indiana	7,617,960	7,993,725	15,611,685	380,000	450,681	490,000
Illinois	8,784,481	7,843,028	16,027,510	382,830	568,230	571,020
Missouri	956,261	—	—	75,000	450,000	230,000
Iowa	55,000	—	—	550	15,500	14,700
Wisconsin	—	—	—	—	52,856	52,845
California	120,000	—	—	—	—	—
	170,575 736	13,534,220	21,409,956	8 786,843	18,537,211	17,846,504
U. States	74,388,238		74,288,238	1,209,751	43,774,848	39,355,268

Massachusetts.—The direct debt is mostly for deficient government revenues; the indirect, for loan of credit to railroads.

New-York.—Direct debt is for canals and railroad credits assumed; the indirect, for credits loaned to railroads. The revenue and expenses do not include those of the canals.

Virginia indirect debt, is mostly for credits loaned to public works.

North Carolina debt, is a credit loaned to the Gaston Rail-road assumed by the state; the indirect, is a similar credit, not yet fallen upon the state.

Florida debt, is for bonds loaned to broken banks; and the contingent debt is accumulating interest.

Alabama debt, is the unredeemed credit loaned to the state banks; and the indirect, other liabilities connected with the institution.

Mississippi Debt.—Direct, is for bonds loaned to the Planters' Bank; the indirect, the fraudulent bonds of the Union Bank.

Louisiana.—The direct debt is for loans for state purposes; the indirect, the bonds loaned to banks.

Texas.—The debt is the face for which the state is liable. The nominal amount of the debt is $12.322,443. A new loan for $200,000 was authorized.

Arkansas debt, is the bonds loaned to the banks; and there may be accumulated interest in addition.

Michigan debt is the balance of bonds now outstanding.

Indiana and Illinois direct debts, are those for which the state is liable. The contingent, is the debt to be liquidated only by the state canals, and their property in the hands of trustees for that purpose.

Missouri, is the old debt. There are now two projects before the legislature of the state. One to authorize the Pacific railroad, capital $4,500,000; and the Hannibal and St. Joseph's Railroad, capital $4,500,000—making together $9,000,000; of which two-thirds, or $6,000,000, is to be raised by state credit. This last bill has become a law.

7.—PUBLIC DEBTS FOR BONDS ISSUED BY THE STATE OF LOUISIANA

In favor of banks and corporations. Interest payable and capital reimbursable by said corporations as maturing, and not provided for by the state when such corporations fail to comply with the conditions of such issues.

JANUARY 1, 1844.

Bonds issued by the State.	When due.	Amount emitted.	Amount negotiated.
Consolidated Ass'n	30 June, 1843	$763,000	$763,000*
do	1 June, 1848	1,617,000	1,617,000*
Union Bank	1 Nov. 1841	1,750,000	1,750,000
do	1 Nov. 1847	1,750,000	1,750,000
do	1 Nov, 1850	1,750,000	1,750,000
do	1 Nov. 1852	1,750,000	1,750,000*
Citizens' Bank	1 Feb'y, 1850	2,000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb,y, 1859	2.000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb'y, 1868	2,000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb'y, 1877	2,000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb'y, 1886	2,000,000	499,680
Municipality No. 2	1 May, 1869	499,680	30,240
Municipality No. 3	15 Dec., 1870	30,240	
			$17,029,920

State Bonds outstanding 1st January	1844	$19,909,920
" " "	1852	9,261,333 36
Amount redeemed		$10,648,856 64

JANUARY 1, 1852.

Bonds issued by the State.	When due.		
Consolidated Ass'n	1854 to 1866	$1,376,000	
Redeemed	—	—	
Redeemed	—	—	
Redeemed	—	—	
Union Bank	—	1,370,000	
Citizens' Bank	1 Feb'y, 1859	1,296,888 89	
do	1 Feb'y, 1868	1,297,333 33	
do	1 Feb'y, 1877	1,297,333 33	
do	1 Feb'y, 1886	1,296,888 89	
do Bonds due in 1850 extended to	1 Feb'y, 1852	252,622 23	
do do do	1 Feb'y, 1853	252,622 23	
do do do	1 Feb'y, 1854	252,622 23	
do do do	1 Feb'y, 1855	252,622 23	
Municipality No. 2	1 May. 1869	356,160	†
Municipality No. 3	15 Dec., 1870	30,240	‡
		$9,261,333 36	

* Dishonored. † Int. dishonored. ‡ Int. paid by state.

8.—LEAD RESOURCES OF THE WEST.

The following account of the lead, and other mineral resources of the western states, we take from the St. Louis Republican.

The demand for lead, it is said, more than equals the supply, notwithstanding the new and extensive discoveries here, near the eastern market. Until very recently, and up to the discovery of mines in Pennsylvania, Illinois was almost the only source of lead in the United States. The amount of lead shipped from Galena and other ports, annually, is about 42,000,000, according to the register kept in the city of Galena. This amount would be, at $4 per cwt.—the price there—worth $1,780,000. The number of miners actually at work does not exceed 2,000, which would show an average production of $890 for each man. Now deduct $90 for cost of working and smelting the mineral, and we have the large average production of $800—an amount of prosperity indicated of which no other country can boast. The lead business, which for a few years past has been declining, is daily becoming more active, and confidence in the mineral resources of the country is constantly increasing. Not one acre in one hundred of the mineral lands of Illinois, has been scratched with the pick or spade, and all the leads (lodes) heretofore worked lie within a few feet of the surface.

9.—PUBLIC DEBTS OF LOUISIANA.

Payable at the State Treasury, and provided for by the law of 1844, *and amendment of* 10*th March*, 1845, *as then adjusted and now standing.*

1 JANUARY, 1844.

State Bonds and Bills Payable.	When due	Amount due	Coupons dishon.
Bank of Louisiana, for Stock	1 July, 1844	$600,000	
do	1 July, 1849	600,000	
Mechanics' Bank, for Stock	9 May, 1853	150,000	
Draining Company, for Stock	1 Nov., 1855	50,000	$1,250
Charity Hospital, for property	24 Mch., 1872	125,000	11,200
N. O. & Nashville R. R. Co	1 Apr., 1867	500,000	31,330
Clinton & Port Hudson R. R	1 July, 1849	166,000	58,150
do	1 July, 1859	166,000	
do	1 July, 1869	166,000	
Mexican Gulf R. R. Co	18 Dec., 1869	30,000	600
do	11 Mch., 1870	50,000	
do	23 May, 1870	20,000	
Citizens' Bank, for borrowed money	1 June, 1857	250,600	
Consolidated Ass'n	14 Feb., 1844	72,000	
do	1 June, 1848	153,000	
Union Bank of La	1 May, 1844	88,000	28,485 82
do	1 May, 1847	87,000	
do	1 May, 1850	88,000	
do	1 May, 1852	87,000	
Charity Hospital, donation	1 May, 1858	100,000	10,000
B. P., favor Bank La., borrowed money	27 Feb., 1844	250,000	1,500
" La. State Bank, "	2 Mch., 1844	50,000	
" Canal and Banking Co., "	1 Feb., 1844	50,000	
		$3,898,000	$142,515 82
Add Coupons dishonored		142,515 82	
		$4,040,515 82	

1 JANUARY, 1852.

State Bonds and Bills Payable	State Bonds	When due	Amount
Bank of Louisiana, for Stock	Redeemed	..	..
do	do	..	..
Mechanics' Bank, for Stock	do	..	..
Draining Company, for Stock	Draining Company	1 Nov., 1855	$50,000
Charity Hospital, for property	Charity Hospital	24 Mch., 1872*	125,000
N. O. & Nashville R. R. Co	N. O. & Nashville R. R	1 Apr., 1867	483,000
	Redeemed	..	..
Clinton & Port Hudson R. R.	Clinton and P. H. R. R	1 July, 1860	50,000
do	do	1 July, 1869	166,000
Mexican Gulf R. R. Co	Mexican Gulf R. R	18 Dec., 1869	30,000
do	do	11 Mch., 1870	50,000
do	do	23 May, 1870	20,000
Citizens' Bank, for bor'd m'ny	Citizens' Bank	1 June, 1857	250,000
	(The balance, *as above*, redeemed)		
	Deduct		$1,225,000
Union Bank of La	Bonds of the Clinton & Port Hudson Railroad Co., held by the Union, redeemable out of the State profits in that institution	$217,000	
Charity Hospital, donation	Charity Hospital Bonds provided for by the sale of property	125,000	
			342,000
			$883,000

* Coupons dishonored, $1,075.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

E. HOWARD, Banker, of Tennessee.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 24.

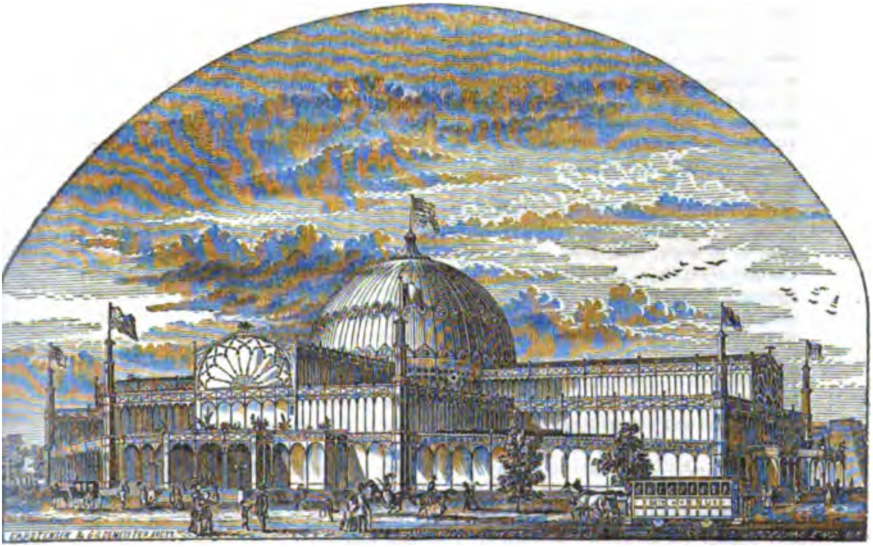
Mr. Howard was born on the 1st of February, 1817, in the county of Sumner, Tennessee. After receiving the ordinary rudiments of education, in his eleventh year he commenced life in Nashville, but in consequence of ill health, remained there only for a short time. Having changed his residence to various places in Kentucky, and in his native state, he finally settled in Clarksville, in the year 1840, where he has been permanently established in business ever since.

In 1842, Mr. Howard was elected Secretary of the Clarksville Insurance and Trust Company, which position he occupied until Sept., 1849, when the company, by his own advice, through the vote of the stockholders, was dissolved. He immediately commenced a banking and exchange business on his own account. Early adopting the opinion that the banking operations of the country should be left to individual enterprise, and be based on the productions of the country, he has, in the successful conduct of the Clarksville Insurance and Trust Company, and his own business for ten years past, demonstrated the truth of the theory. His action has not been without its influence on the moneyed institutions of his section, for during this time most of them have adopted the policy in bill-buying, by dispensing, in many cases, with endorsers. Under the old system, money was often procured on the credit of endorsers who rarely met the obligation, on the failure of principal or drawer. Having received no consideration, they generally felt themselves at liberty to contest the obligation, and avail themselves of all legal pleas to avoid its payment. This being true, the wisdom of the new policy must be obvious.

Mr. Howard is extensively connected with the tobacco interests of the west. It being the staple of his section, he has found it to his interest to acquaint himself intimately with the trade of the world, and in its participation has derived important benefits.

Although Mr. H. has been frequently solicited to accept of offices of honor and trust, he has uniformly declined them; always lending his influence, however, in propagating the principles of republicanism, as they have been handed down to us by the great apostles of democracy. A republican in religion and politics, he has ever been liberal of his time and means in encouraging and supporting whatever was calculated to exercise a beneficial influence upon society. The cause of education for the benefit of the poor has always found in him an ardent advocate.

Mr. Howard has ever taken a lively interest in behalf of internal improvements. We had ourselves the pleasure of being present at a rail-road meeting, held on a recent occasion, near Clarksville. Mr. H. was urged to address the assembly, and gave decided evidence of becoming an effective public speaker. We entirely coincided with him in the opinions he expressed with regard to the policy of the rail-road system. He said that the great object of rail-roads was not to build up cities, but to benefit the country, and that if cities could only flourish by impoverishing the country, he was in favor of erasing them as cancers on the body politic, &c., &c.



EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—THE AMERICAN CRYSTAL PALACE.

We are enabled to present to our readers a correct and elaborate representation of the splendid edifice, now in course of erection in New-York, for the exhibition of the industrial products of all nations, in May next.

If any enterprise, undertaken by our citizens, could partake of the character of nationality, and attract to itself the favorable consideration and zealous co-operation of every section of the republic, this one assuredly does. It seeks to bring together the varied products of our people, from where the Oregon rolls its tide to the regions of the bleak and inhospitable Aristook,—southwardly, thence through every zone of climate; by the waters of the Ohio and the Missouri; along the shores of the Atlantic and the Gulf; where the Mississippi swells from rivulet to "inland sea;" or the Rio Grande and the Gila bound the dominions of the Republic. What a world is here to be embraced, and what an infinite diversity of ingenuity, enterprise and product!

More than this. The enterprise proposes to bring together the men of all these regions into one great conclave; side by side the woodcutter of Maine and the miner of the Sacramento; the hardy whaleman of Nantucket, and the stout boatman of the Illinois; the caravan driver of Santa Fe, and the frontier man of Nebraska; the manufacturer of Lowell; the tobacco grower of the Roanoke, and the hemp and wheat sower of Missouri and the lakes; the merchant princes of New York; the polished and wealthy planters of the Ashepoo, the Alabama, the Lafourche, and the Attakapas; the brave and sturdy hunters of Texas, and Arkansas. What a commingling of men of every shade of thought and feeling, and associations and pursuits! How gathered here in this asylum of the oppressed of all nations! The Anglo-American, first planter of our soil, represented in his remote descendants; the Celt, and the Celtiberian; the Frank, the Swede, and the Norwegian; the Scot and the Magyar; hordes from Germany, and colonists from the Sandwich Islands and China; sprinklings here and there of the aborigines themselves, proudly and sternly yielding to the fiat of heaven, which decrees their extinction! Is not much to be expected from this commingling? Will it not tend to obliterate local feelings, and prejudices, and antipathies; to strengthen the bond of amity and concord; to make us feel, indeed, that we should be *one* people, inheriting in common the blood of the martyrs of liberty, cherishing alike the memory of Washington, and Jefferson, and Hamilton, and venerating and respecting the Constitution and the Government they have given us?

More than this, again. There are other purposes to be subserved. There is a world beyond us in which civilization, and the arts, and the sciences have been advancing for ages, reflecting lustre over the earth, and making man, by his achievements, little less than the angels themselves. What lessons may we learn from this world beyond! Will the peoples of this world come here? Will they bring their wares, and their fabrics, their results of finished skill and exhaustless science? We invite them. Invite them that we may learn from them. Invite them that they may learn from us—for there is a reciprocity in all these matters, and we have a great deal to teach, as well as to learn, as the late London exhibition evinced. Let there come men, and machine, and fabric. We have a great and a growing country. We shall want them all in the ages that are approaching, and they shall want us, and what we can give them. There is nothing niggard in the claims of commerce. If it asks, it grants. If it buys, it sells. It seeks to be as free as the winds that waft it, for, as Voltaire well said, it constitutes at once the wealth of the state, and the advantage of the entire world. *Commerce, que fait à la fois la richesse d'un état et les avantages du monde entier.*

What more appropriate than the selection of the place for this great congregation of men and product? Is not every American proud of the great metropolitan city of the Western World? Is it scarcely less than the metropolitan cities across the ocean, whose charters run back to feudal times? Is it not fast climbing to the altitudes of London and Paris? Who has made this great city? Was it you, cotton-spinner of Lowell, or cotton-grower of Mississippi? you, fisherman of Cape Cod, or pioneer of Missouri? or, was it not *all of us together*, by our conjoined labor and toil, by our enterprise and our wealth, and by our spirit and resources, that have made this great, this central, this wide-acting, wide-moving, world-potential city of New-York? We *all* claim it alike. We *all* have equal rights in it, and intend to exercise them. The South knows that in this city *her* rights are secure. Its merchants were the first to protest against the growing fanaticism of the North, and their moral force will be felt again whenever abolition, run riot, would endanger the existence of the Union. Whether from interest or from feeling, we care not which, the South will find, has found, in New-York, a guardian of her rights—New-York, which lives, and moves, and has its being from the existence of the great confederation, and can hope for nothing beyond it.

We trust that the South will take measures to be represented at this great fair. We were comparatively unrepresented in England, though we could have surprised and delighted every observer, had it pleased us. We should organize associations in every state at once, for there is no time to be lost, since the building is to be opened in May next, and without doubt sufficient sums of money can be raised to defray the expenses of the transportation of our products.

Let the South unite in the great experiment. We are a part of the nation that must obtain the glory of success, or the shame of discomfiture and defeat.

By such a course, we will show that though mindful of our own rights, and jealous to the breadth of a hair, of their infraction—ready to disrupt the Union itself at any moment rather than submit to the position of inferiority, oppression and wrong, we are *Americans* yet, taking pride in the achievements of the great republic, on land and on sea, wherever its banners float, from the rising to the setting sun.

By such a course, we will also obtain at any time the co-operation and active participation of the North, in any exhibition or fair we may have upon our own soil, and how many appropriate sites could be selected for such exhibition in the future, near the Gulf of Mexico, or on the Atlantic, between the Chesapeake and the Savannah? Citizens of the Southwest have already been discussing this matter; and the time will come when they will act upon it. We think it will be soon, and stand ready to second any judicious movement in that direction.

At present, a few pages of our magazine cannot be better employed than with a sketch of the American Crystal Palace movement, a description of the building, etc., etc., referring the reader for other details to the circular of the Committee in our advertising columns:

"It was very natural that those citizens of the United States who were in London in the summer of 1851, and who saw and felt the gratifying triumphs that our people achieved during that year, and who also saw the peculiarly popular character of expositions of this kind, and their beneficial tendencies in regard to the working classes, should early have entertained the idea of repeating the exhibition on this side of the water. Accordingly, shortly after the close of the London fair, steps were taken for the purpose.

"The form of our political system, and the constitutional restrictions imposed on our state and federal action, rendered it impossible that the affair should be, as it was in England, taken up and carried on by government; and it therefore became necessary to rely on individual enterprise and activity.

"New-York, the commercial metropolis of the Union, was naturally selected for the spot; and on the 3d day of January, 1852, the municipal authorities of that city, perceiving the immense benefits that must flow from such an enterprise, if properly conducted, not only to the commerce and prosperity of the city, but to the cause of popular instruction and of healthful entertainment, granted a lease of Reservoir Square for the object.

"The Legislature was then applied to, and that body, on the 11th of March, granted a charter of incorporation to the ASSOCIATION FOR THE EXHIBITION OF THE INDUSTRY OF ALL NATIONS.

"The principal provisions were as follows:

"The Association was incorporated with a capital of two hundred thousand dollars, leave being given to raise the same to three hundred thousand dollars.

"They were authorized to occupy any real estate that might be granted them, and thereon to erect a building for the purpose of the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations. They were further empowered to award prizes, and do every thing necessary to carry out the general object.

"On the 17th of March, Mr. THEODORE SEDGWICK was elected President, and Mr. WILLIAM WHETTEN, Secretary.

"The next important step was to secure the co-operation and countenance of the Federal Government. It was essential, in order to obtain extensive support from the manufacturers of Europe, that their goods should be admitted duty free. The proper department of the Government of the United States treated the matter with cordial liberality; and on the 24th day of May, Mr. MAXWELL, Collector of the Port of New-York, made a written communication to the President of the Association, stating that the building, when erected, would be made a bonded warehouse so as to receive goods free of duty, while on exhibition.

"It next became necessary to organize the Foreign Department of the enterprise; and it being essential that the affairs of the Association in Europe should be, for the sake of order, conducted by some one competent agent, they selected for that purpose Mr. CHARLES BUSCHEK, of London, whose great experience as Commissioner of the Austrian Department at the London Exhibition of 1851, and whose excellent character and high social position pointed him out as eminently fitted for the place; and arrangements were thereupon entered into by which Mr. Buschek was authorized to secure the co-operation of the manufacturers of Europe. The appointment of Mr. Buschek was made on the 25th of June. Shortly after, Mr. C. E. Detmold was appointed Superintending Architect and Engineer; Mr. Horatio Allen, Consulting Engineer; and Mr. Edmund Hurry, Consulting Architect.

"The next step was to obtain the plan of the building. Sir Joseph Paxton had, with great liberality, furnished one of singular beauty, but the peculiar shape of the ground rendered it impossible to use it. The late lamented Mr. Downing—a name dear to his country—offered another of striking ingenuity, but this was also excluded by the terms of the grant from the city, which peremptorily required that the building should be exclusively of iron and glass. Many other plans were offered, of great beauty and originality; and from these, the Board, after much consultation, determined to select the one introduced in this number.

"The main features of the building are as follows: It is, with the exception of the floor, entirely constructed of iron and glass. The general idea of the edifice is a Greek cross, surmounted by a dome at the intersection. Each diameter of the cross will be 365 feet 5 inches long. There will be three similar entrances: one on the Sixth Avenue, one on Fortieth, and one on Forty-second street. Each entrance will be 47 feet wide, and that on the Sixth Avenue will be approached by a flight of eight steps; over each front is a large semi-circular fan-light, 41 feet wide and 21 feet high, answering to the arch of the nave. Each arm of the cross is on the ground plan 149 feet broad. This is divided into a central nave and two aisles, one on each side; the nave 41 feet wide, each aisle 54 feet wide. The central portion or nave is carried up to the height of 67 feet, and the semi-circular arch by which it is spanned is 41 feet broad. There are thus in effect two arched naves crossing each other at right angles, 41 feet broad, 67 feet high to the crown of the arch, and 365 feet long; and on each side of these naves is an aisle 54 feet broad, and 45 feet high. The exterior of the ridgeway of the nave is 71 feet. Each aisle is covered by a gallery of its own width, and 24 feet from the floor. The central dome is 100 feet in diameter, 68 feet inside from the floor to the spring of the arch, and 118 feet to the crown; and on the outside, with the lantern, 149 feet. The exterior angles of the building are ingeniously filled up with a triangular lean-to 24 feet high, which gives the ground plan an octagonal shape, each side or face being 149 feet wide. At each angle is an octagonal tower 8 feet in diameter, and 75 feet high.

"Four large and eight winding stair-cases connect the principal floor with the gallery, which opens on the three balconies that are situated over the entrance-halls, and afford ample space for flower decorations, statues, vases, etc. The four principal staircases consist of two flights of steps with two landing places to each; the eight winding staircases are placed in the octagonal towers, which lead also to small balconies on the tops of the towers and to the roof of the building.

"The building contains on the ground floor 111,000 square feet of space, and in its galleries, which are 54 feet wide, 62,000 square feet more, making a total area of 173,000 square feet for the purposes of exhibition. There are thus on the ground floor two acres and a half, or exactly 2 52-100; in the galleries one acre and 44-100; total, within an inconsiderable fraction, four acres.

"There are on the ground floor 190 octagonal cast-iron columns, 21 feet above the floor, and 8 inches diameter, cast hollow, of different thicknesses, from half an inch to one inch.

These columns receive the cast-iron girders. These are 26½ feet long, and 3 feet high, and serve to sustain the galleries and the wrought-iron construction of the roof, as well as to brace the whole structure in every direction. The girders, as well as the second story columns, are fastened to the columns in the first story, by connecting pieces of the same octagonal shape as the column, 3 feet 4 inches high, having proper flanges and lugs to fasten all pieces together by bolts. The number of lower floor girders is 252, besides 12 wrought-iron girders of the same height, and 41 feet span over a part of the nave. The second story contains 148 columns, of the same shape as those below, and 17 feet 7 inches high. These receive another tier of girders, numbering 160, for the support of the roofs of the aisles, each nave being covered by 16 cast-iron semi-circular arches, each composed of 4 pieces.

"The dome is supported by 24 columns, which go up above the second story to a height of 62 feet above the floor, and support a combination of wrought-iron arches and girders, on which rests a cast-iron bed plate, so constructed as to receive the 32 ribs of the dome. The light is communicated to the dome through the lantern, as well as from the sides, on which 32 escutcheons, in colored glass, representing the arms of the Union and its several States, or the emblems of the different nations, form a part of the decoration.

"The quantity of iron to be used for the building will amount to about 1,250 tons. The roof will cover an area of 144,000 square feet. The glass for the building will amount to 39,000 square feet, in 9,027 panes, 16 by 34 or 38 inches.

"On entering this building, the observer's eye will be greeted by the vista of an arched nave, 41 feet wide, 67 feet high, and 365 feet long; while on approaching the centre, he will find himself under a dome 100 feet across, and 118 feet high.

"It is certain, therefore, that the edifice will be larger, and more effective in its interior view, than any thing in the country.

"The aspect of the building will be entirely different from that of the London Crystal Palace. Its form affords the requisite scope for a pleasing variety of architectural embellishments, by which all monotony can be avoided, and allows a very economical use of the ground. The rising dome, independent of its effect in the interior arrangement of the edifice, will give height and majesty.

"The following are the objects which the architects have striven to combine in their plan:

"1. The greatest possible interior area.

"2. Perfect safety and elegance of construction.

"3. A well calculated and pleasing admission of light.

"4. A variety of *coup d'œil* in the interior."

2.—DISPOSAL OF THE COTTON CROP.

I make the position, that planters and their commissioned agents, by a joint effort, could dictate a range of prices at which the crop of cotton should be held. To sustain it, I propose to examine the cotton tables issuing from New-York, New-Orleans, and Liverpool, bearing on the present and future relations of supply and demand. By adding the stock in American ports on the 1st September, 1851, and the stock of all other countries, as reported on the 31st of December following, to the American crop of that year, and allowing 500,000 bales to be furnished by other countries, (although the receipts would forbid that allowance.) we have the total supply for consumption during the year 1852, which make an aggregate of 4,310,925 bales, and the consumption of all countries is shown to be 78,840 bales per week, or 4,099,680 per annum, by deducting which, from the supply, we have left at the end of the year a stock in all of 211,245 bales, at the present rate, enough for two and two-third week's consumption. To continue this calculation into another year, admit the American crop to be the same as last year, 3,015,099 bales, and that foreign countries furnish 500,000, add to these supplies the 211,245 bales, surplus of last year, and we have the total supply for consumption during the year 1853, amounting to 3,726,344 bales; if the same rate of consumption continues, there will be a deficiency at the end of the year of 373,336 bales. There is no apparent cause at present, except the want of cotton, why consumption should lessen; on the contrary, all existing circumstances favor an increase to the utmost extent of any supply that can be furnished, among which can be enumerated, the abundance of provisions, employment given to laborers, which enable them to consume a full supply of heavy clothing, peace among nations, short clippings of wool, to be supplied by cotton, the falling off in the cottons of India, the abundance and cheapness of money, which is seeking investment at a low per cent., especially in manufacturing countries, the mills working almost entirely to orders, which is an evidence that the fabric is wanted as fast as it can be made. With such an array of favorable circumstances, planters should expect a remunerating price for the present crop, and they will get it, providing their fears are not operated on by the action of other interested parties, or drawn on advance on their crops, that will compel the merchants to force the market; they should feel assured, and act on it, that every bale of cotton that has been made in 1852 will be called for at any price under the non-consuming point by January, 1854. The investigation of cotton tables, has brought to my view the fact, that there never has been two consecutive years during which cotton did not bring ten cents; indeed, I have found but one entire commercial year that it did not sell for ten cents at some period within the year; which is an evidence, if the crop was properly put on the market, it would constantly command that price. How is this to be effected! The plan proposed is, for cotton commission merchants to hold a convention and organize a board of trade, which is to investigate the relation of supply and demand, to consider the cost of production, allow a fair per cent. on planting investment, and make up a range of prices annually for which cotton should be held, urging, through an address to planters, the importance of their not drawing bills on the faith of cotton, calculated to force it on the market, and present the advantage of planters organizing throughout the cotton states, for the purpose of arriving at accurate information as to the amount of crop, at the earliest day after housing. By such action, the golden manacles can be removed, and the silver cord be broken, by which the unsuspecting and helpless planter is tamely led to the broker's stall, there to have his interest immolated at the shrine of foreign aggrandisement; and juggling merchants should remember that they are at the centres of business; to them planters are accustomed to look for information on this subject; through their hands our cotton must go, and every opinion in regard to it is entertained with respect and confidence; and will they say there is no help, without an effort at concert? This action would, at least, reconcile planters to the price obtained for their cotton, establish more confidence between planters and merchants, whose interests are identical; it would certainly have a tendency to arrest the suicidal policy pursued by planters, of drawing an advance on their cotton, which often compel merchants, for the protection of their own and the planter's credit, to sell when his judgment would dictate otherwise, thus injuring his own, the planter's, interest, and all persons holding cotton on sale; and for merchants to advise planters not to ask an advance on their crops, without concert, would involve a question of modesty that none will brook. There is little doubt but an English record of our indebtedness is as regularly made as that of our crops, and not only the amount owed, but when it has to be paid. Under such circumstances, the planter's cotton is entirely subject to foreign capital, and until this evil is corrected, there can be no independence or voluntary action in disposing of the cotton crop; the price will be lowered or raised. as it has been in England, to suit our indebtedness and their interest.

MARENGO PLANTER.

Shiloh, Ala., Oct. 8th, 1852.

3.—WESTERN MILITARY INSTITUTE.

This college has acquired a very high reputation on account of its excellent discipline and thorough course of instruction. The report of the Board of Visitors, now before us, speaks in the highest terms of the moral deportment and progress of the cadets, the judicious government of the Institute, and the success of the whole system. The incorporation of Judge Monroe's Law School with the Institute is a most valuable addition. As a careful elucidator of the principles of law and profound jurist, the judge's reputation is coextensive with the states.

The establishment of such a college as this, which, if faithfully administered and adequately sustained, *must* prove a real blessing to our country, necessarily entails great responsibility and labor upon its founders. We therefore think that every advocate for the extension of a sound physical and intellectual education among our youthful countrymen should, as an act of justice, inquire into the validity of this Institute's claims to patenage, and, if found worthy, exert his influence to strengthen and uphold it. With this conviction, we commend the Western Military Institute to the notice of our friends and patrons. Its advertisement appears in our columns: other information, with copies of the catalogue for 1852-'53, and the rules and regulations, can be obtained from the superintendent or adjutant, at Drennon; A. O. Smith, Esq., Louisville; or Smith & Johnson, agents of the Institute, 67 Magazine-street, New-Orleans.

4.—VIRGINIA INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT CONVENTION.

We now keep our promise to insert the resolutions adopted by the late great rail-road convention in Virginia, prefixing them with the names of the officers:

President.—Gen. Peter H. Steenbergen, of Mason.

Vice-Presidents.—Capt. R. G. Morris, of Amherst; Wm. H. Macfarland, of Richmond; Jos. Segar, of Elizabeth City county; Wm. B. Preston, of Montgomery; R. A. Thompson, of Kanawha; Cary Breckenridge, of Botetourt.

Secretary.—Jefferson Kinney, of Augusta.

Assistant-Secretaries.—S. A. B. Gilmore, of Greenbrier; J. Woodrum, of Botetourt; J. J. Wade, of Giles; B. H. Jones, of Fayette.

Resolved, 1. That the time has now arrived when Virginia, if she would retrieve her declining fortunes, and save herself from the burden of perpetual taxation, must boldly, with confidence in her own energy, and with a firm determination, strengthened by a proper state pride, not to be thrown aside by younger and more enterprising states, resolve to contend for her legitimate share of the commerce of the great valley of the Ohio and Mississippi.

2. That, in the opinion of this convention the burden of taxation now sensibly felt by the people of this commonwealth can only be thrown off by the completion of the works of internal improvement, in which the state has already made large investments, and by promptly forming advantageous connections with the channels of commerce, and the lines of travel in other states.

3. That, in view of the rail-road connections now being formed in Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee, the vast interest of Virginia, in her works of internal improvement, imperiously demands that she shall, at an early day, complete the Virginia and Tennessee rail-road to the Tennessee line. and by a rail-road connected with her improvements already commenced unite the waters of the Ohio with those of the Chesapeake.

4. That, in the opinion of this Convention the state should adopt the policy of lending money to the various internal improvement companies having unfinished works of the first importance, to enable those companies to complete their works. Said companies being required to pay the interest, and secure the principal of the money so loaned in the manner prescribed by the new constitution, in respect to the state debt, and to give mortgages on their respective works for the purpose of securing the payment of the principal and interest, as aforesaid.

5. That aid upon the foregoing plan should be granted to the James River and Kanawha Company, for the completion of the canal to some point at or near Covington or Clifton Forge, and to construct a rail-road with a guage of five feet from such point to the Ohio River. To the Central Rail-road Company for the completion of their road to Covington or Clifton Forge. To the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road Company for the completion of their road to the Tennessee line, and to construct a branch to the line of the road from Covington to the Ohio. To the Richmond and Danville, South-side, Manassas Gap and Orange and Alexandria companies for the completion of their respective works.

6. That, the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road Company should have the privilege of running their freight-cars over the Covington and Ohio Road, and that there should be no discrimination by the James River and Kanawha Company in respect to charges for freigh or travel passing over their road to or from

either the Virginia and Tennessee Road or the Central Road.

7. That, it be recommended to the General Assembly so to amend the charter of the Norfolk and Petersburg Rail-road Company as to authorize the Board of Public Works to subscribe for three-fifths of the capital stock thereof.

There was also a resolution offered by Mr. Segar and adopted unanimously, in terms so flattering to the Review and to our labors as editor, that it would be almost immodest to copy it. We may be allowed, however, to hope that such a voice of approval will be attended by a large increase of our circulation among the enterprising internal improvement men and citizens of Virginia; in whose cause our labors have been and will be unceasing.

5.—LATE PUBLICATIONS.

Hand-Book of the Useful Arts.—This is another of the valuable series published by Mr. Putnam, under the title of the Home Cyclopedia. Its objects, which are well fulfilled by the editor, Dr. Antisell, are to comprise, in a clear and comprehensive form, for popular reference, a dictionary of all terms used in the application of science by the useful arts. It includes agriculture, architecture, domestic economy, engineering, machinery, manufactures, mining, photogenic and telegraphic art, together with the principles and practice of each, and a compend of American and European invention.

Hand-Book of Literature and the Fine Arts.—Still another of Putnam's Cyclopedias, compiled and arranged by George Ripley and Bayard Taylor, and embracing complete and accurate definitions of all terms employed in belles lettres, philosophy, theology, law, mythology, painting, music, sculpture, architecture, and all kindred arts.

In reference to the literary portion of the work, it may be said to include all terms of logic and rhetoric, criticism, style and language; sketches of works which stand as types of their age or tongue; reviews of an systems of philosophy and theology, with a history of literature among all nations. Illustrated with wood-cuts.

Northwood; or, Life North and South.—Showing the true character of both. By Mrs. Sarah J. Hale. With illustrations. New-York: H. Long & Brother.

This is a beautiful and catholic work, and comes in good time, now that the South is so much assailed in the Uncle Tom style of romances. It is in some part a reproof to those calumniators, who, Mrs. Hale well says, in their zeal have forgotten that the master as well as the slave is their brother. The work was written when abolitionism first began seriously to disturb the harmony between the South and the North.

Austral-Asia—Australia.—This is a splendid work, with maps and illustrations, published by Messrs. Tallis & Co., of London, New-York and New-Orleans, and forms a part of the series of Martin's British Colonies. We have largely referred to it and used its information in our article upon Australia in the present number.

Massachusetts Register and State Record, 1852. By George Adams.—We thank the editor for a copy of this most valuable work, which contains a complete directory of the state, with much valuable information upon its resources, statistics, history, etc. The work has been regularly published during many years.

Eagle Pass; or Life on the Border.—By Cora Montgomery. This volume constitutes No. 18 of Putnam's Semi-monthly Library for Travelers and the Fireside. The author works up much material upon the peon slavery of Mexico, and our relations with the republic, complaining that government looks with indifference upon the treatment which Americans receive in that quarter, etc.

Pynnhurst: His Wanderings and Ways of Thinking. By Donald Mac Leod, New-York: Charles Scribner. New-Orleans: J. B. Steele. Pp. 429.

We have here a collection of sketches by a new writer, some of more and some of less value. This volume tells of travels and adventures in Europe, and in a manner and upon a plan by no means uninteresting. There is in it much truthfulness to nature, and the work is therefore not devoid of genius. Yet there is manifest, it strikes us, something of an attempt, it may be an unconscious one, on the part of the author, at imitating the style of Ik Marvel, though not, perhaps, in its most objectionable features; for "objectionable" we do think that style in many particulars is, albeit there are those who admire it, and discover therein beauties unperceived by the common mind. Odd it is, no doubt, and dreamy, hiding within it, seemingly, more thoughts than lie on its surface; but often they are hidden, indeed—hidden in a mist where none, the writer not excepted, can find them, grope they long as they may. But we would not be understood as condemning "Pynnhurst." Far from it, for it contains not a few fine thoughts finely expressed.

The Greek Girl. A Tale, in Two Cantos. By James Wright Simmons. Boston & Cambridge: James Munroe & Co. Pp. 143.

Another Byronic imitation, but, we need scarcely say, not in the manner of Byron. Mr. Simmons evinces poetical talent, *but not* of a high order. His verses are not absolutely bad; they are worse, for they are *mediocre.* The poet must have lofty thoughts, and he must know how to express them worthily. The dedication is the best part of the book: it evinces both good sense and modesty, and is quite *unique*: "*To the President and Faculty of Harvard University,* these pages are most respectfully and with great diffidence inscribed by *one who took* no 'Honors,' first or second, at the venerable institution over which they preside, and of which he was an unworthy pupil; and who now comes, under the auspices of *Apollo,* to ask, at the hands of that benign mother, forgiveness for his early delinquencies."

Lives of Wellington and Peel.—One of the series of Appleton's Popular Library, and certainly among the very best. The biographies are taken from the London Times, and are elaborately and ably prepared.

The Life, Character and Acts of John the Baptist, and the Relation of his Ministry to the Christian Dispensation. By the Rev. Wm. C. Duncan, M. A., Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages in the University of Louisiana. New-York: Cornish, Lamport & Co. 1852.

We are indebted to our friend the author for a copy of this work, which we are sure, like everything else from his pen, will be found throughout to be marked by sound scholarship and elaborate research. We are perhaps not enough acquainted with theological matters to form an opinion of its merits, and therefore will only refer it to religious criticism. It is based upon the German work of Johannes der Taufer of L. Von Rohden, and is the first book devoted exclusively to the treatment of the life and ministry of John the Baptist, which has ever appeared in the English language. The subject which it considers, the author discusses with thoroughness and impartiality. If his treatise, he says, shall be found to fill a place hitherto untenanted in English religious literature, he will be abundantly rewarded for his labors.

Diplomacy of the Revolution, an Historical Study. By Wm. Henry Trescott. New-York: D. Appleton & Co.

We certainly wrote a notice of this valuable work during last summer, but some how or other find, upon looking over our pages, that it has not appeared. Having expressed personally to the author how highly and how favorably we have been impressed with his labors in this as in other fields, it certainly became us to take public notice of them at an earlier day. We regret that it has been otherwise.

Now-a-days, when men expect to be made statesmen at the ballot-box, and not in the library, as knights are made by the mere tap of the sovereign's sword, it is consoling to find some one, and especially a young man of high talents and finished education, devoting himself to the analysis of government pacts and observances, and to the study of those rules of international polity which are intended for the protection of the weak against the strong, and for cementing in one wide and harmonious union the great families of the earth. Mr. Trescott is not satisfied with the surface. He dares to think and to speak even unpopular things. He dares to enter fields where flippant politics imagine are to be gathered but dead-sea fruits.

His present work is worthy of study and reflection. Its style is terse and vigorous—its erudition, elaborate and searching—its argument, close and convincing. The author has read Calhoun—read him with avantage, except upon one point, and herein we put in a caveat—he cannot admire and appreciate his great work upon government. The judgment is not in the book before us, though we have learned that the author is very free to express it.

Apropos of this great work of Calhoun. Alas, the legacy intended by the statesman for the world, has been monopolized by a few Carolina admirers. Why is it that the book has been published at a price which gives it admission to the few only? Why is it that copies can be obtained for neither love nor money in half the cities in the Union? (Our copy cost us $4 in New-Orleans, and it was the last of some four or five which had been received.) Does Mr. Calhoun belong so exclusively to Carolina? Why is it, too, that the other volumes of his writings have not appeared, with all the liberal aid afforded by the legislature? How is it that no elaborate analysis and sutcinct presentation of the work upon government has been prepared and published by any of the thoughtful and able disciples he left behind him? In view of all this, well might Mr. Calhoun in death, as he often did in life, pray to be saved from the kindnesses of his friends.

6.—NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

Contentment is Better than Wealth.—By Alice B. Neal, Author of "No such Word as Fail," etc., etc. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y. J. B. Steel, N. O.

Waverly Novels, comprising Rob Roy, The Antiquary, The Black Dwarf, and Old Mortality, complete in separate vols. A. Hart, Philadelphia. J. C. Morgan, N. O. A splendid edition.

Cicero's Tusculan Disputations. By Anthon. With English notes, critical and explanatory. Harper & Brothers, N. Y. J. C. Morgan, N. O.

Pure Gold; or Truth in its Native Loveliness. By Rev. D. Holmes, A. M. Derby & Miller, Auburn. J. B. Steel, N. O.

Bishop Butler's Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature: with an Analysis left unfinished by late Rev. Robert Emory, D. D., complete and edited with a life of Bishop Butler, with notes and index, by G. R. Crooks. Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O. The publishers deserve great honor for giving such an edition of this immortal work.

Life and Works of Bobert Burns. By Robert Chambers. In four vols. Vol. III. Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O. We have noticed the other volumes of this work, and shall again refer to the present.

Memoirs of Life and Writings of Thomas Chalmers, D.D. L.L.D., by his son-in-law, Rev. Wm. Hanna. In 4 vols. (Vol. IV.) Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O. No library will be without the writings of this Christian philosopher and most eloquent divine.

SummerTime in the Country. By Rev. Robert A. Wilmott. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y. J. B. Steel, N. O. (Appleton's Popular Library.)

School for Fathers; an old English story, by T. Gwynne. Harper & Brothers, N. Y. J. C. Morgan, N. O.

Institutes of Algebra. By Gerardus B. Docharty. Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O.

Virginia and Magdalene; or the Foster Sisters. A Novel. By Emma D. E. N. Southworth. Complete in 1 vol. A. Hart, Philadelphia. J. B. Steel, N. O.

Southern Ladies' Book, (November No.) A neat literary periodical, edited by Miss L. V. Smith and W. T. Leonard. We will notice more fully hereafter; at present can only congratulate the fair editor and her associate, and hope for their future success.

7.—EDITORIAL NOTES.

We are still unable to publish the remaining papers relating to the Bowie family and the great duel, but they will come up before long, and our friend, Dr. Kilpatrick, must be patience itself.

We call attention to the prospectus, in another column, of the Cotton Plant, a valuable southern paper, which C. G. Baylor, late consul at Amsterdam, a gentleman well known for his advocacy of direct trade, etc., is editing. It is worthy of general support, and we trust will receive it.

Number 3 of our series of papers upon Free Banking will appear in January number; also an elaborate article discussing the Tehuantepec question.

8.—RAIL-ROAD MATTERS.

We have again a good deal of material accumulating, but assuredly our readers must be satisfied if, after the elaborate paper in the opening part of this number, we should postpone any others upon rail-roads now.

9.—NEW-YORK MERCANTILE LIBRARY SOCIETY.

We trust that the librarian will hereafter send us the reports in good season for analysis. There were in January last 23,140 volumes. The reading-room contains 23 daily papers, 38 weeklies, 77 monthlies, and 38 quarterlies. Connected with the institute are public lectures and night-school classes. The young men of New-York deserve immortal honor for this institution, which has hardly a parallel anywhere in Europe.

10.—LIVE AND LET LIVE.

In an address delivered by the Hon. Zadoc Pratt, one of the most practical and useful citizens of our country, and of which he has favored us with a copy, we find a very good commentary upon the doctrine at the head of our paragraph. We quote it for the benefit of all, and many that we know very well stand most egregiously in need of it. The doctrine is, "Live with your neighbor, and not upon him." This is the true rule of policy, as of religion, and Mr. Pratt has had the wisdom to find it out, and to make it available in carving out for himself a pre-eminent position among his fellows.

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